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*Economic India as revealed by the War.**

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(i) The Shibboleth of Free Trade.

The advantages of Free Trade have been variously described, and instances are adduced in proof of its manifold blessings. It may well be recognised at the outset, that Free Trade affords a strong impulse to International trade, that it quickens the growth of manufactures, and that in the long run it tends towards the localization of industries in places best suited to their development. Facility of production and mobility of commerce are immensely increased, and the markets of the world become centres towards which converge manufactures from the most distant but favourable regions. The countless blessings theoretically attributed to Free Trade, might perhaps be enjoyed if only we could, for a time, suspend the forces which shape the economic evolution of every country. Generalisations in economics, as in any other branch of sociology, cannot be claimed to be of unfailing and universal validity; they are tested and applied solely in regard to the varied conditions and stages of development presented by different countries. A panacea cannot safely be prescribed for all economic disorders, and the problems arising in a particular land have to be solved in consonance with surrounding influences. Moreover, Universal Free Trade has long remained a chimera; it has been more or less an economic dream of which adverse forces have prevented the realization. Stern conditions of ruthless competition and the workings of an aggressive spirit, have falsified the hope aroused by an excessively optimistic conception of the friendly, peaceful, and co-operative instincts of mankind, irrespective of nationalities. But the remark is glibly made that some of the progressive Free Trading countries offer a powerful testimony to the vitalising and formative influence derived from a struggle for existence in the industrial world. Competition is thus claimed to be the driving force of economic advancement, and a state of decadence and stagnation is the grim forecast of the Nemesis which attends the enjoyment of Protection behind Tariff walls. It would seem as though nations rushed fully formed into the arena of Free Trade, and developed in conflict each its strength and capacity

* Substance of an Address before the "Chintamani Literary Association" with H. O. D. Harding Esq., I. C. S., District Judge, in the Chair.

for commanding the markets of the world. But the economic history of these advanced countries engaged in profitable Free Trade, shows the way out of a bewildering situation for industrially weaker nations likely to be overwhelmed by unrestrained competition. It is well to remember that civilizations which illumined the stage of History at different periods, did not burst there suddenly in all their outward magnificence, but that, concealed from gaze, they passed through an epoch when there were slowly gathered the elements and influences which made possible such a splendid appearance. This caution as to our proper recognition of the incipient stage of national development, is not wholly unnecessary, since we are apt to forget, in the glory of the culmination, the gradual process of growth which preceded it.

(ii) **In the West and For the East.**

The economic development of the United Kingdom furnishes in itself an instructive study of the stages through which a nation has to pass before it can be fully benefited by the adoption of Free Trade. Protection of industries and restriction of imports were, at one time, found to be necessary for the encouragement of manufactures and for the confidence of capitalists in devoting their resources to productive enterprise. The industries thus fostered received an impetus from the invention of machinery and from the application of organised economical methods of manufacture. The ease and rapidity of communication and the expansion of markets favoured the growth of industries under conditions congenial, and, to an extent, considerable enough, to render Free Trade advantageous. Thus struggling industries had been strengthened and economic resources had been utilised before England entered on the policy of Free Trade. The successive steps in the change from agriculture and Protectionism to manufacture and Free Trade, were not taken without enormous effort and hardship; they transformed economic development and entailed neglect in the production of food-stuffs and and raw materials. The products of British factories supplied the requirements of the world's markets, in exchange for the import of raw materials and commodities for consumption. The freedom and equipoise of Imports and Exports was established, and the essential conditions of a successful policy of Free Trade were fulfilled. Nourished and strengthened by Protection during the XVIII and the early decades of the XIX century, England was placed beyond the fear of competition when she embarked on Free Trade. The Industrial regime which was inaugurated, has given rise to problems in the regulation of work and wages in factories, into the reconciliation between the interests of Capital and those of Labour.

The industrialization of the West, then, is full of lessons which will enable India to avoid the dangers and obtain the benefits of passing through the transitional phase of economic organization. The archaic economy is slowly passing away in this land, and signs are manifest of industrial enterprise modelled on the Western system of production. But manufactures should not be allowed to swamp and supersede the production of raw materials, especially in a land where agriculture has long been the mainstay of the population. Moreover, a country covered with factories and enveloped in the smoke from their chimneys, is liable to neglect, with fatal results, the preservation of fair fields and the increase of raw materials. The products of Nature called forth by man's enterprise furnish the materials of Art, and nothing can promote economic self-sufficiency more than the realisation of the close inter-dependence of agriculture and industry. The growth of manufactures should encourage and amplify the cultivation of the land, rather than allow food and crops to languish and disappear. Dependence on imports for the supply of raw materials is not less undesirable than the incapacity for manufactures. It has been well said, that a nation which relies exclusively on agriculture or manufactures for its economic existence, is in a posi-

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tion as precarious as that of a person who counts too much on his eggs, all of which he has chosen to carry in one basket. Less elegant, perhaps, but more emphatic, is the representation of such a nation as an unhappy individual who, with one leg atrophied, hopelessly limps as best he can with the other.

Again, the development of Industries will satisfy the needs of a growing population and provide opportunities for those who create in some measure the problem of the "Unemployed". In this respect, the growth of manufactures will be the salvation of the surplus population. The Malthusian cry is sometimes heard in India, that the requirements of the people far exceed the productivity of the land. Warnings and forebodings are spread of the speedy advent of a time when there shall be more mouths to feed than food to feed them. The fear is unfounded, provided the means of averting any such catastrophe are taken; and the means are easy, effective and intelligible. The reclamation of land for agricultural purposes, and the encouragement of industrial processes, suggest themselves as the saving factors between the growing demands of a people and the diminishing returns of their land.

National progress can never be really achieved unless it be kept in touch with the springs of economic life. National greatness is bound up with the development of industrial resources. Economically sheltered and strengthened during a period of Protection, the industries of advanced countries have successfully resisted and overcome the forces introduced by foreign competition. As M. De Witte remarks, "the State in the province of consumption should furnish the population with cheap and suitable produce, and in the province of production develop the productive powers of the country". The development of the "productive powers of a country" signifies the enrichment of the sources of national wealth and advancement. This function of improving economic resources touches the root of national life and progress. A respected Indian economist some time back made the following observations :—"England developed the productive powers of the people, and in the wake of those powers came flourishing manufactures, skilled mental and bodily labour. America, like other countries, has long resisted the siren songs of Free Trade, and has reached an economic state which emboldens some of her citizens to call for a system of Free Trade. Germany and Russia have yet to reach such a state, and they stick to a protective system in the hope of attaining it earlier or later." The trend of economic progress in the West reveals to us stages which falsify the assumption that Free Trade, *per se* and at all events, is beneficial. Protection suggests itself as a necessary phase through which nations pass in their career of economic development.

(iii) **The War and the Economic situation.**

The War in Europe, provoked by Prussianism, has witnessed the rallying together of three of the great Powers of Europe, and of Japan and the British Empire in the East, in defence of the rights of small nationalities, in recognition of solemn pledges, and in vindication of the sacredness of Treaties which cannot be brushed aside as "scraps of paper." The shock which Europe feels to day, can only be compared to the convulsion produced centuries ago by the Teutonic migration which swept over the crumbling fragments of the Roman Empire. Progress since those times has only served to render war more dreadful, ambitions more dangerous, and armaments more powerful.

Historically considered, the struggle of the nations in Europe is but the recrudescence of past international aims and hostilities; it has been a disastrous eruption of which rumblings and forebodings were recognised a long time past. Championed by the Kaiser, erected into a fetish, expounded with severity by Bernhardi, the doctrine is proclaimed that war is but a biological necessity or an exciting international pastime. Force is consecrated into a Religion and fashioned into an instrument for carving an Empire.

Politically viewed, the war has afforded the opportunity for knitting closer together in spirit and policy Great Britain, her colonies and her possessions; it has brought into manifestation the organic nature and unity of the Empire. In regard to India herself, the crisis has been of immense significance; the interests of the Empire have been fully perceived, and an ardent desire has been evinced to bear proudly the responsibilities of Imperial citizenship. The presence of Indian expeditionary forces on the arena of the European War, is a living testimony to the enthusiastic support enlisted in the cause of the Empire. At the same time that the loyalty and heroism of Indian and Colonial troops testify to the keen appreciation of the value of Imperial citizenship, the present situation emphasises the need and offers the opportunity of strengthening still further the bonds of Empire. The problem of Imperial Federation * has emerged within the pale of practical politics, and a proper solution of it will afford the sign and safeguard of Imperial Unity. This conception of a Federalised Empire forcibly represents the commingling of the currents of Imperialism and Democracy.

In its economic aspect, the European struggle has revealed the value and permanence of Imperial Preference as the bulwark of Federal Union within the British Empire. The commercial advantages of a carefully adjusted system of Imperial Preference, will enhance Imperial security and promote the solidarity and self-sufficiency of the Empire as an international unit. Speaking of Preferential Tariffs for India, Sir Guy Fleetwood Wilson made a happy allusion to the "Empire policy which has grown up, so different in character and purpose from any policy the world has ever seen, which has the object of strengthening the Empire as a whole by the development of the economic interests of its several parts, and the banding together of the mother-country and the constituent states of the Empire, by a co-ordination of policy and inter-twining of economic interests on a system of Imperial Preference."— The present war has disturbed the conditions of trade and pointed to the need for economic reorganization especially in India.

The dislocation of British trade by the War has been somewhat limited by the fact that the necessary imports of Great Britain have come from places out of Europe, and that her supplies, e.g., of wheat etc., are found mostly within the Empire itself. Not so, however, in regard to India, where the war has upset and paralysed the condition of trade, both on the side of export and of import, because her raw materials, e.g., cotton, jute, etc., had largely been shipped to Germany and Austria, from which also her imports had largely been received.

(*a*) **India's Export trade with the Countries at War.**

	1912-'13	1913-'14
Austria-Hungary.	£ 4,834,774	£ 6,408,800
Germany ..	£ 16,575,543	£ 16,867,800
France ..	£ 10,502,714	
Russia ..	£ 1,328,576	

[Germany has been an important market for raw cotton, raw hides and raw jute—the value exceeding 27 crores—according to the special memorandum in the report of the Director of Statistics for 1913-14.]

(*b*) **Germany's Export Trade with India.**

	1912-'13.
Metals	£ 1,795,000
Woollen goods	£ 633,000
Dyeing materials ..	£ 680,000
Cotton manufactures ..	£ 674,000
Machinery	£ 198,000
Glass, Liquors, oil, silks and other exports amount to ..	£ 6,900,000
In **1913-1914** ..	£ 8,542,000.
Austria's Export ..	£ 2,844,800.

The dire results of the far-reaching German and Austrian commercialism might be obviated, if the Industrial system in India had improved sufficiently to admit of the surplus raw materials being worked up into finished goods, which thus would satisfy the needs of her own population. The dependence of India on foreign exchange of goods might be considerably minimised, and

* The place of India in a Federalised Empire is indicated by the present writer in the "Modern Review", p. 530, November issue, 1914.

the economic self-sufficiency of the Empire might be fully realised. When the present war shall have ended, the efforts of statesmanship might be directed towards the quickening, within the Empire, of a *common* life, political, economic and institutional. Then will grow up within its fold a family of nations enjoying equal care and protection, equal security and privileges, inspired by a united purpose, and intent on a common destiny.

(iv) Industrial India.

The problem of economic organization in India is thus forced on our mind in all its vital importance. The trade-relations of this country would not have been so seriously affected by the War, if they had been confined to the limits of the Empire by a system of Imperial Preference, and extended to other nations only on terms of reciprocity. The evils which have now resulted from commercial relationship with Germany and Austria, might be transformed into blessings, if the raw materials which are kept back, could be used in this country itself for the production of articles which would satisfy Indian requirements. But capital in India is more than ordinarily shy; labour, cheap enough, is untrained, and economic resources are left undeveloped. Protection closely linked to Imperial Preference*, will impart the needed stimulus to Indian industries, and materially help their advancement, at the same time that the economic interests of the Empire are unified and safeguarded. There can be no basis for any apprehension of disastrous consequences to India from such allocation of her markets within the confines of the Empire, since Preferential measures do not forbid trade with foreign countries if conducted on the principle of discrimination, and since, moreover, the nature of exports from India is such—comprising chiefly raw materials and foodstuffs—as would preclude retaliation on the part of foreign nations.

The need, then, is keenly felt in India for the improvement of economic methods and for the promotion of indigenous industries. These are not days when we can restore in villages the art of slow weaving, though in splendid design, practised by persons who could claim traditional skill and knowledge of the technique. The world has moved fast since those times. Now is the period of cheap and rapid production or overproduction, when the machine dominates the industrial sphere. The days have gone by when hand-made articles were in fact the embodiment of the artistic sense and skill of their producers; the standardization of industries to-day has rendered possible the extensive employment of elaborate labour-saving machinery and the profitable investment of capitalist resources. We cannot afford to "cry halt" to the invention of machinery and deprecate the spread of factories. Rather, the methods adopted and the progress achieved in the West, should furnish practical guidance to all efforts for the revival and improvement of Indian industries. The co-ordination of the best features of industrial life in the West and of the natural collectivism of India, provides the most satisfactory solution of the problem of economic organization.

Signs of industrial activity in India can now be discerned in the multiplication of factories and in the increase of imported machinery. The Jute Mills in Calcutta, the Cotton Mills in Bombay, the Rice Mills in Burma, have made their respective localities flourishing centres, and they give point to the fact that proper facilities and prudent management ensure the success of manufactures. The serious depression which beset the Bombay cotton industry some years ago, was a warning against the evils of overproduction and unregulated competition. The weakness of Industrial India consists in the dissociation of the intellect from practical business, of the brain from the muscle, of financial resources from the field of enterprise.

* Reference may be made to the articles by the present writer in the *Magazine*, for a more detailed treatment of this subject.

(v) A bright chapter.

The history of Indian industrialism is redeemed by the record of the efforts and achievements of the late J. N. Tata in the cause of spreading scientific knowledge and stimulating economic progress among his countrymen. Gifted with a clear vision and practical spirit, impelled by a ceaseless yearning for industrial advancement, Tata was singularly sustained by his ardent patriotism and force of character in pioneering his way towards the fulfilment of some of the vast economic possibilities he associated with the future of India. Scientific purpose guided his munificence; patriotic and moral fervour intensified his energy. As much a dreamer as a man of action, his Eastern imagination was disciplined by the Western spirit of scientific research. The constant self-sacrifice, unfailing foresight and deep earnestness of Tata, are so well known in their visible embodiments as to render all reference superfluous. Suffice it to remark, that the object of infusing the spirit of scientific investigation which inspired the activities and endowments of Tata, has recently found something like the same passionate advocacy in the generous donation to the Calcutta University, made by the late lamented Sir T. Palit, for the establishment of a College of Science, which will train Indian genius and provide scope for its achievements. Among the flourishing institutions owing their origination to Tata's intellect and their existence to his capital, should be reckoned the Research Institute, intended to cultivate a scientific spirit and to encourage industrial efforts in this country. The Iron and Steel Works founded in his name have almost acclimatised steel manufacture here, while the Hydro-Electric Works, opened recently, have from the waters of The Western Ghats drawn the force for driving mills, thus testifying to the grand conception and enormous advantages of Tata's scheme. An Indian millionnaire, he scorned the love of ease and the trappings of wealth, and strove earnestly for the industrial progress and scientific training of his countrymen. Businesslike philanthropy, keen scientific spirit, unostentatious simplicity, and unremitting solicitude for the welfare of his motherland, marked the career of the late Tata; it will serve as a beacon-light for the guidance of coming generations towards scientific research and industrial revival in this land.

(vi) Industrial Renaissance.*

A few such exceptional successes apart, industrial progress in India has, on the whole, been handicapped by the inadequacy of resources, by the immobility of Indian capital, by the lack of facilities for training and research in technical pursuits, by the hardship of pioneering industries, by the need for encouragement, and, in short, by the generally feeble enthusiasm evoked by the cause of scientific knowledge and economic improvement in this country. Small industries have doubtless been started, e.g., sugar, glass, matches, pottery etc.; but they present only a sad and significant record of failures; defective knowledge and skill have been more or less responsible for this deplorable result. If they should receive the aid of the Government in the way of the investigation of conditions, the establishment of training institutions, the granting of subsidies, the guaranteeing of a certain minimum to shareholders (as in railway concerns), such industries would surely have a longer life and brighter destiny. Other attempts have been sporadic and therefore unsuccessful. Here again, the success of the industries, whether revived or started, would be achieved under the watchful solicitude of the Government. It is by no means suggested that Governmental control over economic measures is preferable to the exercise of individual initiative, and that the surrender of independent enterprise is the *sine qua non* of industrial prosperity. Nothing more undesirable could ever be imagined. But

* Other aspects of the Renaissance are found in "*Western Education in India, its progress, problems and possibilities.*"

where private capacity and resources may not avail, the intervention and moral support of the State will lead to permanent and beneficial results, which otherwise could not be reached. There are departments of industrial activity which the Government alone can create, help, and control effectively and on a large scale; started with the aid of the State, and sheltered till a certain stage of development, such Indian Industries would surely enjoy a prosperous future. Indigenous production would be fostered in India, economic self-sufficiency would be attained, and the industrial efficiency of the Empire would be assured. A change in fiscal policy favouring the imposition of duties on exports and imports in respect of countries *outside* the British Empire, would be conducive to the growth or resuscitation of struggling industries in India.

(vii) Résumé.

The doctrine of Free Trade, of *Laisser Faire*, should be taken subject to qualification, and not as an absolute principle for guidance in the economic affairs of any nation. The fallacy of Free Trade consists in its easy and erroneous assumption of a certain stage of economic advancement, when alone it can prove beneficial. Until that stage is reached, Protection is required for infant industries during the period of their struggle into vigorous manhood. The economic history of England and of other Western countries shows clearly, that an epoch of Protection necessarily precedes the adoption of Free Trade. Nourished and sheltered behind a Protective system, the industries of advanced countries have been able fully to profit by the limitless competition introduced by Free Trade. Protection, then, is realised to be a phase of economic development. India to-day is in a transitional stage from an agricultural to a manufacturing country. Her industries are not sufficiently developed to resist, much less to utilise, the incidents of Free Trade to which she has been exposed. India to-day supplies only raw materials to the markets of the world. Necessarily, therefore, the present war has cut off the demand for raw materials on the part of belligerent nations, thus seriously affecting the conditions of Indian trade. An excessive output of raw materials, while the demand for them has been curtailed, and while no successful and sufficient organisation exists for working them up into "finished goods," is the discouraging feature of Industrial India under influences brought about by the European War. Thus has been revealed the weakness of Economic India, whose industries require to be fostered and protected, so that, fully developed, they may *not* be affected but indeed be benefited by wars beyond her boundaries. A qualified and reasonable measure of Imperial Preference is advocated in the interests of economic progress in India and of the solidarity of the British Empire as a whole. Though mainly dependent on individual enterprise and indigenous capital, certain industries sorely need the care and guidance of the State.

Supported by bounties, supplied with facilities for research and for technical, industrial, and commercial education in institutions established for the purpose, guided by the effective supervision and suggestions of the State, encouraged in the investment of capital, aided by the foundation of model factories with up-to-date machinery, and by the introduction of suitable methods of economic organisation, India will, under the benign care and protection of the State, fulfil her highest destiny in the Empire and enter on a remarkable era of Industrial Renaissance.

S. AMBRAVANESWAR.

The Bug.

(Cimex lectularius, L.)

[*By* G., *I University Class, Group II.*]

The reasons for my dealing with this strange subject are many: first of all, though the bug is an insignificant and even despicable insect, the work it does is certainly wonderful; secondly, the subject has not been extensively dealt with, owing, perhaps, to the impression that neither writers nor readers can say or learn anything worth knowing about this creature; thirdly, and lastly, I myself have had some experience of the affliction caused by this noxious creature. With these few remarks, I shall straightway plunge into my subject.

The question how or why the creature got the name of *bug*, may arise in some minds. It is said that once (that was very long ago) two noble ladies in England were bitten by a bug. They shuddered with horror for they thought that the mark left behind was a symptom of the plague. They sent for an able physician to cure them of the deadly disease. When the living cause of their fright was shown by the physician, who happened to be a naturalist, their fear gave place to mirth and laughter. The story shows how the people of England were terrified when they first came across the insect; and hence they gave it the name of *Bug*, which is derived from a Celtic word signifying "ghost."

The origin of the name is certain; not so the original habitat of the insect. There has been some diversity of opinion upon the topic of the migration of the bug. Some say that the bug followed man as he migrated from Central Asia into Europe and India. Others say that it was imported from America concealed among timber. Though there is some uncertainty as to its original abode and its migration, thus much is certain that it is now found in almost all parts of the world.

The common domestic bug, or the Bed Bug, is about one-fifth of an inch long, and of a rusty red colour. Its flat oval body is covered with fine hairs which are especially abundant around the hinder part of its body. The body is divided into eleven segments; it is therefore an insect. The bug has two hairlike feelers or *antennae*, which are four-jointed and which gradually taper to a point. It is also provided with a proboscis which, when not in use, lies along the lower side of the body. It has a pair of compound eyes placed behind the feelers. The narrow flexible region behind the head is the

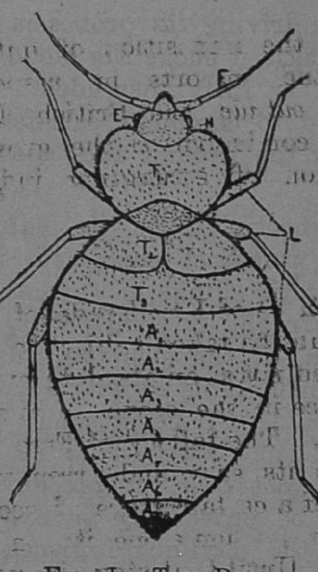

FIG. I.—THE BUG.

F, Feeler; E, Eye; H, Head; L, Limbs; T_1 - T_3—The three segments of the thorax; A_1 - A_7—The seven segments of the Abdomen.

neck. The next three segments form the thorax. To the anterior side of the thorax the three pairs of limbs, used for walking, are attached; the joints in the limbs facilitate free motion. The extremity of each limb is divided into two branches which help the bug to climb easily up walls or smooth surfaces. Lastly, there are seven

segments devoid of appendages, which form the abdomen. This portion is softer than any other part of the body and is capable of distension.

The bug fills this last portion solely with human blood. When, like Diogenes, but without the lamp, it finds its man, it assumes a convenient position,

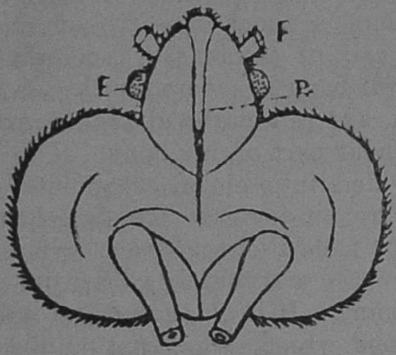

FIG. II.—THE BUG'S PROBOSCIS.

F—Feeler (cut off); E—Eye;
L—The first pair of limbs (cut off);
Pr.—Proboscis.

and after driving its proboscis into its victim's skin it sucks the blood until its abdomen is fully distended. When it has dined to complete satisfaction, it drops on the ground and goes to its abode.

It is nocturnal in its habits. By day it remains concealed in dark crevices or in chinks in walls and furniture; at night it comes from its lair in search of the sleeping victim. It shows considerable activity during these nightly raids. It never comes into the light except when it is so starved that it cannot bear hunger any longer. This can be proved by an experiment. When in the daylight I placed a bug, just taken from a crevice, on my forearm, it ran here and there to conceal itself; and when I closed all the doors to darken the room, it stopped and at once began to bite. On another occasion, I starved a bug for about one week; and when I placed it on my arm, it boldly attacked me even in broad daylight.

Daylight exposes the bug to its foe. But kind nature has not left the bug defenceless. When it is disturbed, it emits an offensive odour, which keeps all but the most determined enemy at a respectable distance. Its eyes are very sensitive to light; it runs away to conceal itself in some crevice as soon as it sees the light, it persecutes its victim unceasingly in the dark. If the victim takes hold of one of his persecutors and crushes it in his anger, he pays the penalty of his cruelty to this child of mother nature: an ablution is necessary to remove the fetid odour.

This defence is not sufficient; for the extermination of the species must also be avoided. As the bug depends upon man alone for sustenance, it sometimes lacks the opportunity of a meal and may even have to bear a protracted fast. Accordingly it is given the power to live many days without any food. The large number of eggs which it lays also helps to preserve the species. The female bug deposits her eggs four or five times during the year in the crevices of the furniture and of the walls of a room, laying about forty or fifty eggs each time. The eggs are very small, white, oval in shape, and they are firmly attached to the sides of the crevice. Thus they generaly escape destruction. In about three weeks the young ones come out, as small white larvae closely resembling the adults. The new-comers at once set about the business of their lives: they search for their man and batten on his blood. The mother teaches them nothing about the nature of their food and the ways and means of securing it; she does not teach them the use of their limbs, nor how to avoid the light; and yet the young ones know all this. Instinct has supplied the need of teaching; instinct, that is to say, the innate powers given by Providence to sentient beings to guide them to their appointed end, works for the preservation of the species.

The Obscurity of Robert Browning.*

[*A Browningite.*]

Robert Browning was born May 7th, 1812, at Camberwell. The Brownings were Dorsetshire people, and Robert Browning, it is interesting to note, came of mixed nationalities. His grandmother on the paternal side was a Creole. His mother, born at Dundee, was the daughter of a mother who was pure Scotch, and of a father of German extraction. Thus there were in Browning mingled threads of nationality worked upon a web of the English middle class. In Browing's heredity germinated his vast intellectual and emotional range and his susceptibility to race differences; but the genius which modulated these varying strains into undreamed of harmony, was all his own. We may think of Browning's childhood as spent among 'old trees', 'climbing plants', and 'morning swallows'; deeply impressed by distant London, murmurous, lighting the sky by night, and imaging that 'need of a world of men,' paramount a conception in his after-years.

Of Browning, we hear, that even when he was eight years old he debated with himself, whether he should not, while retaining the sceptre of poetry, conquer also the provinces of music and painting. At th age of twelve he had written poems enough to fill a volume. Browning went to no Public School and to no University. The systematic use of his father's admirable library was the most important factor of his early education. At seventeen or eighteen he made up his mind that he would make Poetry his career and profession. So, then, in Browning from the beginning we have the unusual phenomenon of a Poet who consciously prepared himself for his vocation.

Browning was born in the after-glow of the great Revolution, and grew up with the growing fame of Shelley and Keats. His earlier poems were written under the influence of Byron's work. In them the style has not yet attained the compression, vigour, and tortuousness of his later works; but the subject and manner of treatment are already those which he has since specially made his own. Whatever may be Browning's defects as a Poet, none can doubt his originality. There is no poet of our time more original, be that originality good or bad, than Browning—no Poet of our time so uneven and so voluminous.

Every great writer has his own method of presentation. We have no right to resent it impatiently; our duty and privilege is to try to understand and appreciate it. Browning is difficult to understand, as he was himself quite willing to acknowledge. But there are degrees of difficulty, and there are kinds of difficulty. The obscurity is not so universal as some would have us think. Many of his shorter poems are entirely free from difficulty. Many others require a word or two of explanation. But there remains a large portion of his work, which undoubtedly demands close attention and the use of a good reference library. (Wilson's "Primer on Browning.")

"The ordinary theory of Browning's obscurity is to the effect that it was a piece of intellectual vanity indulged in more and more insolently as his years and fame increased. There are at least two very decisive objections to this popular theory. In the first place, it must emphatically be said for Browning, that in all the numerous records and impressions of him throughout his long and very public life, there is not one iota of evidence that he was a man who was intellectually vain. The evidence is entirely the other way. He was vain of many things, of his physical health, his good looks, his masculinity, and his knowledge of the world. But everything is against the idea that he was much in the habit of thinking of himself in his intellectual

* Many points in this article have been taken from various essays on the subject.

aspect. Our whole view of Browning is bound to be absolutely false, if we start with the conception that he was what the French call an *intellectual.*"

"There is another very practical objection to the ordinary theory that Browning's obscurity was a part of the intoxication of fame and intellectual consideration. We constantly hear the statement that Browning's intellectual complexity increased with his later poems, but the statement is simply not true. He wrote the greater part of "Sordello", noted for its obscurity and density, when he was twenty-four. It was in his youth at the time when a man is thinking of love and publicity, of sunshine and singing birds, that he gave birth to this horror of great darkness; and the more we study the matter with any knowledge of the nature of youth, the more we shall come to the conclusion that Browning's obscurity had altogether the opposite origin to that which is usually assigned to it. He was not unintelligible because he was proud, but unintelligible because he was humble. He was not unintelligible because his thoughts are vague, but because to him they are obvious."

"A man who is intellectually vain does not make himself incomprehensible, because he is so enormously impressed with the difference between his readers' intelligence and his own that he talks down to them with elaborate repetition and lucidity. What poet was ever vainer than Byron? What poet was ever so magnificently lucid? But a young man of genius who has a genuine humility in his heart, does not elaborately explain his discoveries, because he does not think that they are discoveries. He thinks that the whole street is humming with his ideas, and that the postman and the tailor are poets like himself. Browning's impenetrable poetry was the natural expression of this beautiful optimism." (Chesterton's 'Robert Browning'.)

The difficulty in understanding Browning's poetry is due almost entirely on the one hand to the sources from which he drew his illustrations, metaphors, and similes, and on the other hand to his peculiar style. His poems, nearly all, refer in minute detail to the scenery, manners and sentiments of Southern Europe. To understand his poems, books of travel, the atlas, the guide book, the gazetteer and the Italian dictionary, have all to be brought into requisition. Any dozen passages of Browning contain a volume of references to history, biography; and questions of research are continually aroused. Browning loves to go off at a tangent. He follows up a branch line with as much interest as though it were his main theme. He is a 'creeper into wormholes,' and the obscurities and unknowns of the past are more to him than its great events and trampling conquerors. Yet Browning's hardest lines are no harder, subject to grammatical analysis, than many in "*Paradise Lost*". The worst that can be said of his roughness and difficulty is that 'here is pure gold, but it is uncoined and must be dug for; and certain fragments of rock are sticking to the nuggets'.

To this dauntless, sanely optimistic poet who stands "unique and outside all schools", the eternal tragedy and comedy of life was ever of supreme interest. "His problem is always to show what are the really noble elements which are eternally valuable in spite of failure to achieve tangible results". "What strikes us most forcibly when reading his works, is his marvellous accuracy in delineating the moods, the conflicts and the workings of the human mind. He seems to have clearer insight into the human mind than any one of us has into his own mind. This is one reason why Browning is often unintelligble to us, and we give him up in despair, forgetting that he must be felt rather than understood. There is nothing 'flabby' in Browning, he is always bracing."

But it is the style of Browning which does most to puzzle the reader. In many of the short poems there is nothing to complain of. In the longer poems the language is often difficult.

His style is at once verbose and elliptic. He sometimes makes his sentences long and confusing by the use of many parentheses. He sometimes cuts them down to the quick, by the omission of necessary parts of speech. He omits prepositions, articles, personal and relative pronouns and auxiliary verbs, at his pleasure. He employs uncalled for and graceless inversions.

Browning is a master of what Walter Bagehot calls the "Grotesque Art" in poetry, even as Wordsworth and Tennyson are the typical representatives of the pure and ornate style. 'The grotesque art deals not with normal types but with abnormal specimens; not with what nature is striving to be, but with what by some lapse she has happened to become. This art works by contrast. It enables you to see, it makes you see, the perfect type by painting the opposite deviation. It shows you what ought to be, by describing what ought not to be; when complete, it reminds you of the perfect image by showing the distorted and imperfect image'. Of this art of contrast Browning is a prolific master. (Bagehot's 'Literary Studies.')

Further the choice of his subjects accounts for much of the obscurity of his works. It is very natural that a Poet whose wishes incline or whose genius conducts him to grotesque art, should be attracted by Mediæval subjects. There is no age whose legends are so full of grotesque subjects, and no age whose real life was so fit to suggest them. A buried life, like the spiritual mediæval life, was Browning's natural element, and he was right to be attracted by it. His mistake is that he has not made it pleasant; that he has forced his art to topics on which no one can charm, or on which, at any rate, he has not charmed; that on these occasions and in these poems he has failed to fascinate men and women of sane taste.

"Sordello" is acknowledged on all hands to be the most difficult among his works, and presents in the fullest development the least estimable features of his style. Everyone knows how Tennyson is said to have declared that there were only two lines in it which he understood, and that both of them were untrue—*viz.*, the first:

"Who will, may hear Sordello's story told,"

and the last:

"Who would, has heard Sordello's story told."

Carlyle affirmed that Mrs. Carlyle had read it through without being able to tell whether Sordello was a man, a city, or a book. The obscurity of "Sordello," then, is proverbial; but before careful study this obscurity gradually vanishes. 'A very great part of the difficulty of "Sordello" is in the fact that before the reader even prepares to tackle the difficulties of Browning's actual narrative, he is expected to have an exhaustive knowledge of that most shadowy and bewildering of all periods—the period of the Guelph and Ghibelline struggle in Mediæval Italy. Here, of course, Browning betrays that optimistic humility which we have previously observed. His father was a student of Mediæval chronicles, he had himelf imbibed that learning in the same casual manner in which a boy learns to walk or play at cricket. Consequently in a literary sense he rushed up to the first person he met and began talking about Ecelo and Taurello Salinguerra with about as much literary egotism as an English baby shows when it talks English to an Italian organ grinder'. (Bell's English Classics: 'Robert Browning'.)

The difficulty found by many in certain of Browning's works arises from a quality the very reverse of that which produces obscurity properly so called. 'Obscurity,' says Mr. Swinburne, 'is the natural product of turbid forces and confused ideas; of a feeble and clouded, or of a vigorous but chaotic intellect. Now, if there is any great quality more perceptible than another in Browning's intellect, it is his decisive and incisive faculty of thought, his sureness and intensity of perception, his rapid trenchant resolution of aim. To charge him with obscurity is about

as accurate as to call Lynceus purblind, or complain of the sluggish action of the telegraphic wire. He is something too much the reverse of obscure; he is too brilliant and subtle for the ready reader of a ready writer to follow with any certainty, the track of an intelligence which moves with such incessant rapidity, or even to realize with what spider-like swiftness and sagacity his building spirit leaps and lightens to and fro and backward and forward, as it lives along the animated line of its labour, springs from thread to thread, and darts from centre to circumference of the glittering and quivering web of living thought, woven from the inexhaustible stores of his perception and kindled from the inexhaustible fire of his imagination. He never thinks but at full speed; and the rate of his thought to that of another man's is as the speed of a railway to that of a waggon, or the speed of a telegraph to that of a railway. It is hopeless to enjoy the charm or gist of his writings except with a mind thoroughly alert, an attention awake at all points, a spirit open and ready to be kindled by the contact of the writer." (Swinburne, quoted by Chesterton.)

So, then, the difficulties we encounter in understanding and appreciating most of the works of Browning are due to the sources from which the ordinary illustrations, metaphors and similes are taken, his sudden impatient up and down style arising from his keen, abrupt, zigzag thought, his mastery of and liking for the 'grotesque art' in poetry, and lastly to his choice and depiction of exceptional characters from the mediæval spiritual life. His own mind was certainly never obscure. 'It was', as Hutton rightly observes, 'his own shorthand style that obscured it, not any obscureness in his own perception or his own conceptions'.

'The Nambudiris of Malabar'

[*By* T. A. NARAYANAN, *III Hons. Class.*]

Very little is known beyond Malabar, about this interesting community of Malayali Brahmins. I propose, therefore, to give a short sketch of them, for the benefit of the readers of this Magazine.

Tradition says that the Arabian Sea formerly washed the foot of the Ghats, from Cape Comorin as far as Nileshwar in South Canara, until Parasu Rama, an *avatar* of Vishnu, caused the bed of the ocean to rise above the level of the sea. This newly upheaved land was called Malayalam,—*mala*, a hill, and *arham*, deep chasms—a land full of hills and deep valleys. Parasu Rama brought, to inhabit this new country, certain Tamilian Brahmins from the east of the Ghats; and to distinguish them from others, he changed their dress and their customs to the style still in use to-day, and he called them 'Nambudiris'.

Cut off by high mountains on the East from the rest of the Indian Peninsula, and enclosed by the great ocean on the West, the Brahmins of this picturesque land have since their origin, in the course of many centuries, developed social laws and customs, which to a foreigner appear quite incomprehensible. The Nambudiris who are very conservative, resist any kind of change, even in the present day when all the world around them has been roused to move in the path of progress. In general, we can say, they are the only community who have not been affected, or, if at all, only slightly, by the sweeping changes wrought in the civilised world. Yet, it must be said,

to their credit, that they are an honest, independent and law-abiding people. They seldom seek Government service, and they never find themselves reduced to doing menial work. They lead quiet and contented lives in the distant nooks of their country, away from the bustle of modern cities and towns, and they pass their days in attending to their religious rites and to the management of their estates. It seldom or never happens that a Nambudiri is so poor as to have to go and beg for his livelihood.

The personal appearance, manners and dress of Nambudiri women differ much from those of Brahmin women elsewhere. They are of a fairer complexion, and usually wear neat home-spun clothes. Their ornaments are very simple; for, however rich they may be, they are not allowed to wear any other jewelry than a plain gold necklace tied with a string. They observe a strict Zenana system. They are shut up within the four walls of their houses, so that they may not be seen by strangers. They seldom step outside unless accompanied by maid-servants, and protected from curious eyes by large umbrellas of palmyra leaves, which they hold sidewise, to conceal their person from passers-by. At home they do the cooking and perform other household duties.

Nambudiri men seldom attend public institutions or desire to learn English literature. They have their own languages, Sanskrit and Malayalam, of which they are sometimes perfect masters, and they are generally well versed in the shastras. The education of Nambudiri women, however, is entirely neglected. There are very few women who know how to read and write their own vernacular. Tables of Arithmetic are taught them in their girlhood; but they never attend Government girls' schools, nor are they allowed to do so, on account of the strict caste system in which they are brought up.

The marriage system of the Nambudiris is very curious. Only the eldest male member of a family is allowed to enter into holy wedlock with a Nambudiri wife. The younger sons form alliances with women of lower castes, and their children are not Nambudiris. As a result of this, there are more marriageable girls than eligible bride-grooms, who, as a natural consequence, demand large sums of money as dowries with their wives. Widowhood is strictly enforced, but Nambudiri widows are not, like other Brahman widows, obliged to have their hair shaved off.

The funeral ceremonies of Nambudiris are just like those of other Brahmins. They do not, however, cremate their dead in public burning grounds, but in the compound of their ancestral home. The periods of pollution and of *Sradha* are just like those of their Brahmin brethren elsewhere.

Nambudiris are found in large numbers in the Native States of Cochin and Travancore, for the rulers of these States require their services in the performance of certain ceremonial rites.

Is Shakespeare revealed in his Works?

[*By* G. V. RAMAIYA, *IV U. C.*]

Of the innumerable problems that have been raised about Shakespeare, the question, "Are Shakespeare's works self-revealing?" is not the least important and interesting. This most fascinating problem has engaged the critical attention of many great minds, and they are not at one in their views on the subject. It is not my object to attempt a definite solution; the pleasant task which I have assumed is to weigh fairly the *pros* and *cons* for each solution and to state what seems to be the generally accepted one. The theories on this subject are, the *Impersonal Theory* of Sidney Lee; the *Personal Theory*, if I may be allowed to call it so, of Professor Raleigh; thirdly, the *Moderate Theory* of Professor Dowden.

The first theory is that Shakespeare's art is purely impersonal and that any attempt which aims at finding the man Shakespeare in his plays, is bound to prove futile. The critics of this school urge that Shakespeare, being a dramatist, far from "unlocking his heart", worked in the sphere of sheer fancy, whence he never descended. They say that he never identified himself with, or even, meant to identify himself with, the several creations of his imagination. They further say that he simply put himself in the place of his characters, and invented for them speeches appropriate to their character and to the occasion. They hold that any attempt at identifying Shakespeare with any one of his creations would result in making the drama lose its essential characteristic, namely, its objective quality, and in making it reflect not human life in its entirety and complexity, but Shakespeare's opinions on the various problems of life. In short, they hold that he could not project himself into his plays. The arguments of this school accord well with the general dictum of critics, which maintains that dramatic composition must be objective.

Sidney Lee, the chief exponent of the above school, examines this much discussed question in an essay entitled "The Impersonal Aspect of Shakespeare's Art," which he read before the *English Association.* He asks for 'a tangible personality' in Shakespeare's works. He asks for 'distinguishing idiosyncrasies, individual characteristics, peculiar experiences of mind or heart.' He wants "frequent pronouncements" in Shakespeare's writings, "on religion, ethics, political economy, and the like." This distinguished critic meets with insuperable difficulties in the course of his examination of Shakespeare's plays. These difficulties arise chiefly, first, from the fact that he finds conflicting statements concerning a certain question put into the mouths of the several *dramatis personæ*, rather than a definite acceptance or condemnation of an opinion. Secondly, from the question that may be put, "With whom out of a whole world of characters is Shakespeare to be identified?" Thirdly, from the question, "Which of their utterances is to be regarded as expressing Shakespeare's opinion?"

As an instance of the first source of difficulty, we may take the passage in *Hamlet* which contains a reference to contemporary drama, especially to the rivalry between the boy-actors and the adult actors. Lee says: "In his (Shakespeare's) detailed references to the conflict in *Hamlet*, Shakespeare protested against the abusive comments on the men-actors of the 'common stages' or public theatres, which were put into the children's mouths. Rosencrantz declared that 'the children so berattle the common stages—so they call them—that many wearing rapiers are afraid of goose-quills and dare scarce

come thither (to the public theatres)'. Hamlet pointed out that the writers who encouraged the child-actor did them a poor service, for when the boys should reach men's estate, they would run the risk, if they continued on the stage, of the same insults and neglect which now threatened their seniors. Shakespeare clearly favoured the adult actors in their rivalry with the boys, but he "wrote more *like a disinterested spectator than an active partisan* when he made specific reference to the strife between the poet Ben Jonson and the players." Can we conclude that Shakespeare identified himself with Hamlet because he favoured the adult-actors in their rivalry with the boys? Such an inference seems a little forced. It may be that he gave expression to the opinions of the public at large. It is good to remember, in this place, that Shakespeare pandered to the tastes of the public by the introduction of the rivalry between the boy-actors and men-actors.

After careful examination of Shakespeare's plays, Sidney Lee returns a negative answer to the question that he proposed to himself. He finds nothing beyond indications "that Shakespeare began life by being a boy, that he then reached adolescence and middle age, and that he exemplified in his works characteristics of the various periods of human life."

This conclusion of Sidney Lee does not seem to be quite unassailable. Lee himself seems, as pointed out by Dowden, inconsistent inasmuch as he admits that "an author gives, in the written page, an expression of what is in him. He can have nothing else to give." He even admits that, if the persons in a play are witty or humourous, the inventor of their speeches cannot be totally devoid of wit or humour. Moreover, it cannot be said that he created his dramas "out of nothing." From admissions like this, it might be inferred that Shakespeare is not a mere spectator of his characters and scenes, but that he does project something of himself into them.

The second school, which has for its chief exponent Professor Raleigh, holds that Shakespeare reveals himself in his dramas. Critics of this school consider that, to quote the famous and impressive words of the Sage of Chelsea, "his (Shakespeare's) works are so many windows through which we see a glimpse of the world within him."

It may be observed here *en passant* that Dowden understands by 'the world within him,' the man himself.

This school denies the dramatist's absolute self-detachment from what he creates. It holds that, however much the dramatist may work in the lofty region of imagination, he cannot always remain there, out of contact with men and things. According to this school, the dramatist's mood and temperament cannot but influence and determine in a large measure the character and tone of the work. In short, this school is of opinion that a critical study of Shakespeare's plays will necessarily give us the author's outlook on life, as well as his opinions on religion, ethics, and so on. It has succeeded in identifying Shakespeare with Hamlet and Prospero, and in regarding some of their utterances as expressing the author's own opinions. It is supposed that the tragedy of *Hamlet* contains a good deal of self-revelation. Hamlet's discourse to the players, and the dialogue about "the tragedians of the city", and his analysis of the play that was never acted, are considered by this school as revealing Shakespeare's conception of good acting and of a good play. *The Tempest* reveals much more about Shakespeare than even *Hamlet*. Prospero's rejection of magic power is interpreted to indicate Shakespeare's retirement from the dramatic world. Shakespeare's thorough understanding of life as full of sweetness and quiet, is the cause of the sweet calm that pervades the last plays, *viz.*, the Romances of *The Tempest* type.

This view, namely, that Shakespeare's art betrays or reveals the personality of the author, like that of Sidney Lee, does not seem quite satisfactory;

a great many objections may be raised. First, it looks somewhat like presumption to look for the author's personality in a piece of dramatic composition. Confidence that one has found the man Shakespeare in his plays, may be an illusion arising from the error of identifying the artist with his creations. It remains to be proved that Shakespeare meant to identify himself with his characters. Besides, if the identification of Shakespeare with either Hamlet or Prospero is itself open to question, how can we regard their utterances as Shakespeare's own sentiments and opinions?

In connection with this much contested point, Dowden makes an important distinction. He says, "A man's opinions, though an important part of the contents of his mind, are often not a distinguishing part of his personality. The way in which the opinions are held is more important than the opinions themselves. That Shakespeare sees two sides of a question and puts opposite views of truth into the mouths of different characters, is in itself a distinguishing feature of his mind. In estimating the significance, in relation to Shakespeare's mind, of the utterances of his *dramatis personæ*, we should try to calculate the angle of refraction." What we find in Shakespeare's plays is conflicting, not definite opinions, regarding religion, ethics, politics and the like; it is impossible to find any definite religious or political opinions in his dramas. The primary function of the drama is to 'hold the mirror, as it were, up to nature', not to convey the author's opinions about nature, religion, and so on.

The views of these two schools are the two extreme poles of criticism. The first holds that the general function of art, especially of the drama, is to afford delight and pleasure by the representation of human life and character. The other holds that the drama reveals the author's personality. In short, the first school holds that the drama is incompatible with personality; the other holds quite the opposite view. The difficulty centres mainly round the question, "Is the drama compatible with the expression of personality?", or "Can the dramatist truly detach himself from his productions?" The answer, affirmative or negative, to this question will be the final solution of the problem.

Professor Dowden, the chief exponent of the third and last school, while not denying the general function of art, namely, that of affording delight by the representation of human life, does not think it impossible to find the man in his works. This school may rightly be called the 'school of compromise and reconciliation'. Dowden admits a certain measure of truth in both these views. He admits that a writer may be truly dramatic and yet may betray much that is personal, and also that the dramatist does not always 'summon out of nothingness' the emotions he expresses in his art, but that he draws them out of his own experience of the world.

To understand Prof. Dowden, we must determine what the function of the drama is, and the method or procedure the dramatist usually adopts. The dramatist observes human life in all its moods, and receives certain impressions in his mind. These impressions he faithfully depicts in his dramas. The drama is thus a picture or record of several impressions of human life as a whole. The dramatist's method is to represent the entirety and complexity of human life, himself remaining aloof or behind the curtain. If he interferes with the free action of his characters and reveals his own likes or dislikes, he mars the fine picture of human life. The dramatist represents human life in action and by means of living characters, whereas the narrator comes forward himself and tells us what happened and often makes his own commentary. We might, therefore, conclude that the dramatist does not and should not reveal his personality.

But further considerations point to other conclusions. It has already been said that the drama is a record of impressions received. The character of

these impressions depends very much upon the temperament or mood of the person who receives them. If he has a melancholic temperament, he naturally delights to dwell on the gloomier phases of life; if he is in a merry, cheerful mood, he dwells on phases of life congenial to his merry mood. It is, therefore, correct to say that the writer's temperament and his mood, at the time of composition, affect very greatly the tone of his work. Besides, his learning and experience of the world, be it of vast or of limited range, will also affect his compositions.

Why, even an actor who plays the part of a character loses himself in the character which he personates; he is not able to suppress his individuality, its strength or weakness. What is true of the actor is true, in a far higher sense, of the creator of the drama, of the characters and of their speeches.

Thus we see that the drama to a certain extent supposes the revelation of the dramatist himself.

But now the question arises, whether the dramatist consciously betrays his own personality. A conscious betrayal or revelation of personality marks the work of an inferior artist. Goethe's works are said to be one continued intimate personal confession; but because they *unconsciouly* betray his personality, his fame as a first-rate dramatist has not suffered. Schiller is said to reveal his personality *consciously*, and this conscious betrayal has much to do with the dimness of his reputation. It is most probable, then, that Shakespeare, the master dramatic genius, did not make it his purpose to reveal himself in his plays.

Shakespeare intended his plays to 'hold the mirror up to nature'; he had no idea of making Hamlet or Prospero his mouthpiece, although the critical ingenuity of the School of Raleigh has, more or less, succeeded in identifying the author with his characters. Shakespeare makes Prospero throw away his magic book and wand, not because he intended to represent his withdrawal from the dramatic world, but because of sheer *dramatic necessity*. It is in this way that Shakespeare's works unconsciously reveal his personality.

There is another point which requires our attention here, the *measure* of self-revelation in the drama. The revelation of personality should be made, if it is indeed impossible to avoid it, without the conscious knowledge of the writer; above all, it should not be forced on the attention of the audience or of the readers. What prevents *Samson Agonistes* from taking rank as a great drama, is the presence of the biographical element which protrudes on the reader; blind Samson is Milton himself. If some degree of necessary or unconscious self-revelation cannot be avoided in the drama, too much of it, especially when introduced willingly and knowingly, simply spoils the drama as a drama. In Shakespeare's plays we cannot reasonably expect to find a conscious statement of his religious and political opinions, although his plays reveal his general outlook on life at various periods of his life and his general sympathies. I cannot better conclude than by quoting the words of Seccombe and Allen. "Much is certainly hidden from us; but if we study the plays attentively, we ought not to fail to discover in them the main facts concerning Shakespeare's outlook upon life and something at least of the principles of Shakespeare's art."

War Items.

A Wounded Sepoy's Courage.

An Army doctor describes in the columns of the *Sheffield Independent* how certain units of Indian Regiments were assigned to his care. In looking over his patients to ascertain the nature of their wounds, he noticed that one of the Indians had had half his foot blown away by shrapnel. It was evident that the poor fellow was in great pain, and he decided to attend to him first. The preliminary arrangements for amputation were made, and nothing remained but to administer the anæsthetic. But the Indian, in spite of the fact that he spoke no English, showed in a very determined manner that he had no intention of taking it. An interpreter was fetched in the person of another man of the same Regiment and he was put in possession of the facts. Without turning to the other man at all, he declared that the foot must be cut off as it was. This was accordingly done. The patient had a cigarette in his mouth, and made signs for a match. The doctor continues:—I lit the cigarette for him, and then proceeded. The operation did not take long, and before he had finished his cigarette I had completed the amputation. However, during that time he did not utter a sound, but from the beads of perspiration that stood upon his brow when I had finished, I could see that he had suffered very badly. His *sang-froid* surprised me completely. Truly, the stoicism of some of our Indian troops is wonderful.

The Madras Mail.

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A Boy Soldier.

In the *Evening News* was a long account of Alfred Thompson, a Brighton boy, who managed to enlist at fourteen, being big for his years, and overstating his age. After training, he was sent to the Front, and spent nearly four months in the trenches. He is now back home. This is his description of breaking the news of his enlistment to his parents:—

"It was a bit of a job to break the news at home. I couldn't muster enough pluck until my father and mother had gone to bed. Then I walked into their room and woke them up.

"'I've done it,' I said.

"'Done what?' asked my mother.

"I told them both I reckoned it was my duty to enlist, and if I hadn't got years on my side, I had a good strong body. I said something about my King and Country, and my mother remembered this when she sent me a birthday cake a month after. Instead of the usual letters on it, there was 'My King and Country' in sugar."

Recounting some of his adventures with his regiment, the 2nd Sussex, he said:—

"Another day, the sergeant-major came along and told us Major Ford was lying wounded farther up in a very narrow trench. He wanted two men to go up and bring him in. I jumped at the chance, and went off with another chap. When we got to the major we found he was wounded in five places. He was nearly dead. It was impossible to carry him through the narrow trench. We got him out and carried him over the parapet. There were a few bullets and things whizzing about. But that was all in the game, wasn't it? After all, I wasn't hurt; so there was nothing in that. One day I was in Bomb Alley, as we called our trench, and had just finished writing home to my mother, when a rifle grenade burst. They called these things 'whiz-bangs.' They make a noise like that. A good chunk of it hit me on the top of my chest, which was bare, excepting for my rosary. It struck the rosary and smashed it, but my life was saved."

The Return Home.

His account of his return home was as follows :—

"I got a poisoned foot and was taken to a hospital in France for a month. In that time my mother found out where I was and she wrote to the War Office. She told my real age, and pleaded that I might be brought home. It was a pity. I wanted to get back. You see I'd joined for seven years, and I might have done something big. Anyhow, here I am, back. When my mother brought me home, after meeting me at Chichester Barracks, father thought it was another soldier to be billeted. He held out his hand, and said, 'I'm always pleased to see a soldier. We'll do our best to make you comfortable.' He didn't know me.

"On Monday I went back to my job at the Hove Baths. The trenches may not be very comfortable, but if a fellow of my age can stand it and want to go back, surely chaps between eighteen and thirty-five ought to be able to do it."

The Tablet.

"Keep your Tears for Privacy"—a Brave Soldier to his Mother.

There is real greatness in a letter which Second Lieut. Hubert R. W. Meager, 3rd Australian Infantry, sent to his mother.

"I had delayed this letter hoping to be able to tell you that I had been promoted to lieutenant. The recommendation has gone in, and it is only a question of pressure of work at Divisional Headquarters which delays it. If it comes out before the 'big day', I will drop you a line.

"Father McAuliffe is using my 'dug-out' as a confessional. I went to him, and then skirmished up all the R.C.s in the company. He is having a busy afternoon.

"During the next few days we shall be facing death every minute. If I am taken off, do as the Roman matrons of old—keep your tears for privacy; steel your heart and try and get a dozen recruits to fill my place. Pray hard for me, and if God wills it, I shall see it through. I have seen the priest and will go into action with a clean heart, and if I emerge I hope I shall have proved myself as a man and as a leader, and thereby have justified the confidence of my commanders."

A few hours after the receipt of this truly heroic letter his mother received an official notification of her brave son's death in action at the Dardanelles.

The Universe.

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A Soldier's Prayer.

The following verses, entitled "A Soldier's Prayer," were writen in pencil by the late Captain Thomas Maunsell of the Lancashire Fusiliers, on hearing that his younger brother had been killed in action in France. The verses were found, shortly after he wrote them, on his dead body at the Dardanelles. He fell leading his men to an attack in Gallipoli. His comrades laid him in a soldier's grave by the seashore, and sent his pocket-book to his father, General Maunsell.

Hark ! 'Tis the sound of drums
Beating in muffled tones,—
Bare thou thy head !
Death in the midst of life,
Peace in the midst of strife ;
Honour the dead !

Killed in the battle's heat,
So is it right and meet,
Grand such release !
No need to shed a tear
Over his glorious bier ;
He is at *peace.*

O Lord ! hear Thou my prayer ;
When my time draweth near,
Lord, hear my cry.
Such a death grant to me ;
Facing the enemy,
Lord, let me die !

The Tablet.

* * * *

The British Soldiers' Humour.

"It is by his humour that one may know the soul of the British soldier," writes Mr. Philip Gibbs in the *Daily Chronicle.*

"Amazing as it may seem to those obsessed (as I am) by the horror of it all, there is a prodigious mirthfulness out here, as playful and freakish as dancing light, above the darkness and the sadness of the business."

These men will jest within fifty yards of bursting shrapnel. Their humour is coarse, but healthy and true.

"We can laugh quite heartily, for example," says Mr. Gibbs, "at new and ingenious ways of destroying the enemy, and do not sentimentalise over their sudden death. Our soldiers are here to kill and not to shed tears of pity.

"Last night, at an officers' mess, there was great laughter at the story of one of our men, who had spent his last cartridge in defending an attack. 'Hand me down your spade, Mike,' he said, and as six Germans came one by one round the end of a traverse, he split each man's skull open with a deadly blow.

"'Splendid fellow!' said a military chaplain, laughing very heartily. (This priest does not believe in the sentimentalities of war.) 'That man ought to have the Victoria Cross. . . .'

"Do you begrudge them their laughter? I who go among them, and now again share a little of the peril which is part of their daily routine, know that without such laughter an army is lost. Our soldiers are good fighting men because in the midst of all the horrors of war they find an excuse for mirth. After a night in the trenches, where they have been bombed and shelled, they will come out and make a mockery of German 'frightfulness,' and shout with laughter at things which would sicken more squeamish souls....

"It is only by deadening one's imagination to the misery and horror of it all that one can keep one's mental balance, and it is only by seizing upon every chance of mirth and seeing all the comic aspects of this life that our soldiers maintain their cheerfulness.

"The sense of tragedy peers forth. In men's conversation and men's thoughts there is always an underlying consciousness of the world's prodigious tragedy. But these things are not dwelt upon here at the front, and whatever may be the casualty lists, or the cost of future fighting, there is among all the soldiers an amazing spirit of light-heartedness, so that laughter rises quickly.

"Go into the men's billets, and you will hear their gaiety, though they sleep within range of German guns.

"Go into the dug-outs of the gunners, and there are nine chances to one you will arrive in the middle of a joke.

"Go where the shells are bursting, and I swear to you upon my honour that you will hear men laugh as they scramble for cover, and roar with laughter when two of them have tumbled into the same hole in a tumult of arms and legs.

"It is the gift of humour in our troops that makes them flout the German menace and go on fighting with a grim and ironical contempt for death, when, as at Ypres, for an awful hour or two, the game seemed lost. Like the grave-digger in 'Hamlet,' they will make a jest over dead bones and eat without loss of appetite by new-made graves."

A Diary.

The Diary of a French Army Chaplain. By the ABBE FELIX KLEIN, American Hospital, Paris. Translated by M. Harriet M. Capes. (London: Melrose). 3s. 6d. net.

The Abbé Klein's diary begins with August 3, 1914, and comes down to the end of the year. The first entry describes the state of things in Paris on the declaration of war. All the work in which he was engaged had suddenly come to an end.

The interest of the diary is that, as the events of the war developed, the writer gives us the impressions of each day, the hopes of a speedy victory, the reports of successes that set every-one rejoicing, and then in the last days of August the news of disaster, and in September the revival of confidence by the victory on the Marne. Till nearly

the end of August the Abbé has little to note but these impressions of each day. On the 21st he records the death of Pius X., and his hope that the new Pontiff will be a worker for peace. "The head of Christianity," he writes, "whoever he may be, can never be at war with anyone." On August 29 he writes that he has had his first real pleasure since the war began, for he finds that at last he can be useful. Through the Archbishop of Paris he has received an invitation to act as chaplain to the new military hospital organised by the American colony in Paris at Neuilly. After this, though public events are mentioned and commented upon, the diary is made up chiefly of notes of his work at the hospital.

In the first days of September the wounded began to arrive. The entry in the diary for the 7th begins :—

The real work has begun. This afternoon we received ten English soldiers. One has a bullet in his throat, another a crushed foot, the rest are wounded in the hands, the arms, the legs, the poor limbs so blue and frighfully swollen. Except the poor fellow suffering from acute appendicitis, they are all jolly and good-humoured ; we have to insist upon their sitting down ; even those with wounded feet. The only thing they complain of—and that with laughter —is that they have not been able to wash for some days, or to undress for weeks. . . . One subject of which they are never weary is the delightful welcome everywhere given to them. "We might think we were at home," they say.

From this date onwards there were nearly always English soldiers in the hospital. Probably they were sent there on account of its American staff. They seemed to have been special favourites of the chaplain, who is never tired of telling of their cheerfulness, patience, and courage. It was the rule of the hospital that at least at first the wounded should not be allowed to talk about the war, but it seems to have been impossible to keep them off the subject. So in the Abbé's diary we have numerous glimpses of the fighting on the Marne and the Aisne, and of the long winter battle on the Western front. There are many stories of German atrocities, but as a set-off against these, there are some records of kindly deeds on the part of the enemy. Thus, on September 15, the Abbé writes :—

Several of our wounded have gone through the same experience of captivity and deliverance. They bear witness to the honourable behaviour of the German medical officers. For example, here is one of the stories I heard. "After the battle I found myself in a ditch, incapable of moving. A German surgeon passed by. He gave me bread and coffee, and promised to come back in the evening, if he could, or on the next day. The night and the next day passed without my seeing anyone. It seemed very long. That night he came again. 'I did not forget you,' he said, 'but I had no time.' And he had me taken away and took good care of me." Such facts deserve to be put on record. In this letting loose of horror and hatred we must dwell on the few features capable of softening hearts.

French Jesuits at the Front

From the 28th August 1914 to the 22nd June 1915, 47 French Jesuits died on the battlefield.

The Pope's Nephews at the Front.

The three nephews of Pope Benedict XV, the two Counts of Persico and Count Venier, are with the army at the front. His brother, the Marchese della Chiesa, a retired admiral, has been called to the colours and the admiral's only son, a cadet, is shortly to be commissioned.

Sense and Non-sense.

I

Happiness.

Happiness is not without thee,
  Not in hoarding, nor in spending,
Not in pomp of friends about thee.
  Though the world should jeer and flout thee,
All its wrath in clamour ending,
  Ere it reach thy heart's strong portal
All may die in sound and shouting,
  And thy gladness be immortal.
'Tis the heart's repose and peace,
  Strong in greed's and hate's surcease,
Dowered with the graces seven,
  Joyous in its sin's release,
Glad of earth and sure of heaven !

—[Father Garesché, S.J.

Love.

"You have only a day to spend here on earth ; act in such a manner that you may spend it in peace.

"If you cannot bear with your brother, how will he bear with you ?

"Peace is the fruit of love ; for, in order to live in peace, we must bear with a great many things.

"No one is perfect ; each has his failings, each hangs upon the other, and love alone renders that weight light.

"Love is indefatigable ; it never grows weary.

"Love is inexhaustible ; it lives and is born anew in the living ; and the more it pours itself out, the fuller the fountain.

"The wicked man loves not. He covets ; he hungers and thirsts for everything. His eyes, like unto the eyes of a serpent, facinate and allure, but only to devour."

* * *

We reduce life to the pettiness of our daily living ; we should exalt our living to the grandeur of life.

* * *

A grateful man cannot be a bad man.

* ° °

If a man were shown me who had a long memory for little kindnesses, who never seemed out of debt in his affections, who exaggerated his obligations to others, kept anniversaries of them, and repaid them twenty times over, I should be more struck with the likelihood of his turning out a saint than if I heard that he flogged himself to blood daily, slept on boards stuck with nails, enjoyed prayer, had worked miracles and seen visions of the next world. Alas, we forget the ten lepers, and the nine that were ungrateful !

* * *

Patience is the truest sign of courage. Ask old soldiers who have seen real war, and they will tell you that the bravest men, the men who endured best, not in mere fighting, but in standing still for hours to be mowed down by cannon shot ; who were most cheerful and patient in shipwreck, and starvation and defeat—all things ten times worse than fighting—ask old soldiers, I say, and they will tell you that the men who showed best in such miseries were generally the stillest and meekest men in the whole regiment : that is true fortitude. That is Christ's image —the meekest of men, and the bravest, too.—*Charles Kingsley.*

II.

1

Beheadings.

1. Behead 'butcher' and leave what follows a funny story.

2. Behead 'to recite or to argue in a wild manner', and leave a small insect.

3. Behead 'not far away', and leave a part of the head.

4. Behead 'something done to the floor', and leave to cry.

5. Behead 'pleased,' and leave a small boy.

[*Answers*: 1. s-laughter ; 2. r-ant ; 3. n-ear ; 4. s-weep ; 5. g-lad.]

2

My *whole* I trust you will never do to friend or neighbour.

Behead me, and you will be told what it is that makes the steam-engine work so well all day along.

Behead me again and you will see what you would be sorry not to do every day.

Once more behead me, and a preposition will remain.

3

A school-master once heard one of his boys pronounce the word '*honour*' with the sound '*h*'. He told the boy to pronounce it '*onor*.' "Remember," said he, "Always drop the '*h*'". The very next day a friend of the school-master's brought him a hot *appam*, but the master was so busy that the *appam* got cold before he could eat it. He told the very boy he had corrected to take the *appam* to the fire and heat it. The boy took it to the fire, ate it up, and returned. When the master asked, "Where is the *appam*?" the boy answered, "Sir, you may well remember, you told me yesterday always to drop the '*h*'.

4

A man in Trichy wrote a letter, and the address he wrote was :

MESSRS.

Eye $\frac{\text{Am}}{\text{S}}$ and Empty PalaPan,

$\frac{\text{Ark}}{\text{Am}}$

Fortunately there were clever men in the post-office, so the letter reached the addressee. Read the address.

5

Howlers, or the reason why School-masters need holidays,—from answer-papers by American boys.

A deacon is the lowest kind of Christian.

A modern invention : fireless telegraphy.

Benjamin Franklin is the founder of electricity.

Lord Raleigh was the first man to see the Invisible Armada.

Franklin produced electricity by rubbing cats backwards.

In India a man out of one cask may not marry a woman out of another cask.

Tennyson wrote "In a Memorandum."

Tennyson also wrote a poem called "Grave's energy."

Louis XVI was gelatined during the French Revolution.

Queen Elizabeth rode a white horse from Kenilworth through Coventry with nothing on, and Raleigh offered her his cloak.

6

Many a budding genius turns out a blooming idiot.

Every man will have to sleep five in a bed, for every man must lie with his fore-fathers.

Sultry weather may be called paradoxical, for it is close in the open air.

"Scatter sunshine as ye go." Do no such thing, when your friends are basking in sunshine, do not scatter it.

7

Rhymes, or even the jingle of sounds, make a silly thought interesting.

1

There was an old man up a tree
Who was terribly bored by a bee.
Being asked, "Does it buzz?",
He replied, "Yes, it does:
It's a regular brute of a bee!"

2

John Peter Wright
Will ne'er go right.
I will tell you the reason why :
He follows his nose
Wherever he goes
And his nose is all awry.

3

The famous duke of York,
He had ten thousand men.
He marched them up a hill;
He marched them down again.

When they were up, they were up;
When they were down, they were down;
And when they were half-way up,
They were neither up nor down.

4

There was a Young lady in Riga
Who smiled as she rode on a tiger.
They came back from the ride
With the lady inside
And the smile on the face of the tiger.

N.B.—Tiger rhymes with *Riga*, not to the eye, but to the ear; for *er* at the end of a word and not followed by a vowel sound, has the same indefinite sound as *a* at the end of *Riga*.

A recitation for a very little boy.

The Esquimo sleeps in his little bear-skin;
And he sleeps very well I am told.
I slept only once in my little bare skin.
And I woke with a very bad cold.

The War 1st Nov. 1915-1st Feb. 1916.

Retrospect.

The last issue of the Magazine brought the account of the War down to the 1st of November.

At that date, in the West, the Germans were feverishly strengthening their lines that had been shattered and all but pierced by the Allies in their great victories at Loos-Hulluch and Tahure, in September; a series of counter-attacks in October on the lost positions — attacks which were deemed necessary by the German staff, both to brace up the weakened morale of their soldiers and to maintain their reputation for invincibility, (sadly impaired since the Marne), before the Neutral Powers — had ended in costly failures: 8000 German dead were counted in front of the British positions at Loos alone; and twice that number of Germans were mown down by the French guns in Champagne. The Allies, abundantly supplied with men and material, were gaining on the enemy trench by trench, and so fortifying their own defences, that no attack, however well conducted, could have the smallest chance of breaking through them. It has been estimated that 10,000 miles of trenches have been dug and fortified from the North Sea to the Swiss frontier to bar the way to the invader; and 5,000,000 men stand ready to defend then.

The day of the great battles preparatory to the advance into Germany, had not yet come. The Winter must pass first.

In the East, the Germans were throwing away their lives in futile efforts to force back the Russians and to secure the Riga-Dvinsk line before the setting in of Winter. The Russians, while checking the Germans in the North, were turning on the Austro-Germans in the Centre and South.

In the Gallipoli Peninsula, the Allies were holding on to the narrow strips they had conquered at Sedd-el-Bahr and Suvla Bay; nor was it in the Turks' power to drive them back to their ships. The Italians were fighting on the River Isonzo and the Carso Plateau, and tightening their grip on Gorizia.

In Serbia, the Germans and Bulgarians had joined hands; a Bulgarian army was advancing on Monastir from the East, and an Austrian army was invading from the North-West. In danger of being entrapped, the Serbian armies were retreating southwards, while a Franco-British force was endeavouring to effect a junction with them on the Nish-Salonika railway.

At sea, it is needless to say, the Allies were the unchallenged masters. Allied submarines were blockading the Baltic — the last insecure refuge of German shipping — and the Sea of Marmara.

Preliminary Remark.

The reader, impatient for great events, will bear in mind that military operations on a grand scale are impossible in Winter. Clear skies, long days, and hard roads, are an absolute necessity for the mustering of armies to the attack, and the moving of heavy guns. Now these conditions do not obtain from

November to the end of March. In the East, the snow lies many feet deep on the ground; in the West, the country is either an expanse of snow, or of water and liquid mud. Sometimes, for days at a stretch, impervious banks of fog obliterate the landscape and shut out the light of the short days. Rain, fog, snow, sleet, frost — these are the weather conditions from November to mid-March. Trench warfare alone, with local attacks when the weather conditions permit, is all that is possible during those dreary months. The Winter is accountable for that dearth of news in our daily papers, which the unreflecting so persistently attribute to a set purpose of the Allies to conceal failures.

West.

Apart from the frequent artillery duels and air-raids, and the constant mining operations, there is little to record. Not that memorable fights have not been fought, but that in a war of this magnitude, battles that in former days would have had a name in history, are barely mentioned except in a bald official telegram which runs thus: "We blew in an enemy trench at—, and captured it at the point of the bayonet. The enemy counter-attacked. We succeeded in retaining the captured position." The deed told in that simple statement might have supplied matter for an Epic in heroic days; now it passes all but unnoticed. And yet, of the defenders and assailants of that trench, hundreds perhaps were slain, and hundreds more will be cripples for life.

From the official details of the warfare in the West, it is plain that the Kaiser's armies are not having things entirely their own way. They have to submit to the Allies' tactics, play a waiting part, and pray for the speedy arrival of the often promised armies that are to come and reinforce them from the East; — in the East similarly they are waiting for the Armies that will never come from the West. Willy-nilly they must keep to their trenches and endure the shelling that never ceases. When they emerge for a combined attack, the Allied artillery sweeps them away. [Neuville, Loos, Tahure in Jan.]

They can neither advance nor fall back. To do the latter would spell ruin: it would mean demoralization in the ranks; the acknowledment of defeat; the awakening of German public opinion, which has been carefully educated in the dogma of German invincibility and fed on fabricated stories of prodigious German victories. Public opinion is beginning to demand explanations, why, if the British Fleet is in hiding, if the French are beaten beyond recovery, and the Russians eager for peace, if Poland, Belgium, Serbia and a wealthy strip of France have been conquered, why there is a scarcity of bread and butter, let alone of the more dainty sausage, why trade has passed from a standstill to ruin, and the enemies are more determined than ever to continue the fight. An explanation of these things will have to be given to the German public, and to give the explanation is a task which the Kaiser and his friends will not face light-heartedly. Rather hold on like grim death to the trenches, till the trenches can no longer be held for want of men to hold them, and trust that something or other will come out of the cataclysm that follows upon the retreat.

Nor can the Germans hope to break through the Allies' lines. They failed to pierce those lines at Verdun and Ypres a year ago, when the Allies were at their weakest and had little more to oppose to the German guns than the bodies of brave men. Is it likely that, weakened by eighteen months of warfare, reduced in numbers, shaken in their confidence of victory, confronted with victorious troops under skilful leaders and with superior armament, they should do now what they failed to do at their strongest? To the unconquered spirit that barred the way to Verdun and Calais, the Allies have brought up the help of guns. A short while ago, 40,000 shells was fired into the Germans, in the space of half an hour, in a little attack which was mentioned, casually almost one would say,

in the official report in some such terms as these: "The enemy developed a gas attack, which failed; our shells prevented the enemy from reaching our trenches."

Again, we read of mines being exploded under the enemy's trenches; and some of our readers perhaps look upon the incident very much in the light of a small fireworks display at a marriage. Now the explosion of a mine is not always quite the harmless trick that it looks. It may mean hundreds of tons of earth blown into the air, mixed with the fragments of a hundred men, and a fierce bayonet struggle between two regiments for the possession of the crater formed by the firing of the mine. The mining of Hill 60 in the Ypres region last April, led to one of the most desperate battles of the War.

Lastly, aircraft are busy bombing the enemy's depots of munitions, his stores, railways, trains, bridges etc., whenever the weather conditions permit.

These three methods of wearing down the enemy—artillery fire, mining, and air-raids—have been practised almost without intermission during the period under review. Two battles of some importance have been fought; the first for the possession of Hartmannsweilerkopf, the second for the defence of Neuville. Hartmannsweilerkopf commands the Mulhouse-Colmar railway. The hill has been the scene of most sanguinary fighting during the last nine months; the French and the Germans have held it in turn, but never for long, the occupation of the crest by one party invariably leading to renewed attacks by the dispossessed party. At last, in December, the Devils in Blue, (as the Germans nickname the crack Alpine regiments of the French army), seized the summit and captured 1600 of the defenders. The battle at Neuville developed out of a determined and often renewed attempt of the Germans to seize that portion of the French lines. It cost the assailants half a division. (January.)

East.

In November, the Germans made a series of desperate attempts to oust the Russians from the strong positions they held along the River Dwina; the object of the attacks was to capture Riga and Dvinsk and the highly defensible line of the river. Had those cities fallen into the enemy's hands, he would have utilized them as bases for a march on Petrograd in the coming Spring—supposing the turn of events had left him the man power to undertake the adventure—; failing the possibility of the march forward, the Dwina would have proved a most formidable obstacle to the Russians when their offensive began; how formidable an obstacle, is seen in the repeated German failures to cross it under the fire of the Russian guns. The Russian armies kept the enemy at bay; the last German effort failed at Illuxt, when two generals and many guns remained in the hands of the victorious Russians; and the enemy was beaten back to within a few miles of Mittau (Nov.) The Riga-Dwinsk offensive had failed.

Nor were the Austro-Germans more successful in the Centre and South. At Kolki and on the Strypa they lost 13,000 prisoners; they were defeated again at Olyka; and Smorgon was retaken from them. (December.)

Meanwhile (October-December) large Austro-German forces had been detached from the Russian front and drafted into the Balkans, to conquer Serbia, open the way to Constantinople, and perhaps attempt to realize the Kaiser's extravagant dreams of Eastern conquests. The Russians, alert to every movement of troops on their front, profited by the weakening of the enemy's lines in the South: they invaded Bukovina, and gained some considerable successes in the neighbourhood of Czernowitz. (Dec.) That town, it was said at one time, had been evacuated by the Austrians and was about to be occupied by the Russians. Till now, however, it has remained in the hands of the Austrians; and Tchartorysk has become the scene of heavy fighting. (Jan.)

In consequence of the Russian advance, Austro-German troops have been hurriedly withdrawn from the Balkans, to stop the breaches made in the Bukovina lines by the Russians.

Messages received from the Riga-Dvinsk and the Pinsk fronts, show that the German campaign in those regions is not a holiday. On the former front, disease due to exposure was rife among the invaders three months ago; it was to remedy the distress, as well as to secure that line of great strategic importance, that so many attacks were made, but in vain, to secure Riga-Dvinsk before the Russian Winter set in in its fullest rigour. Now we hear of German guns, stores, and battalions being engulfed in the flooded marshes before Pinsk. General Winter, it seems, is adding his forces to those of the Tsar.

These Russian successes must not be construed into a great offensive. Such an offensive in the East, no less than in the West, is beyond possibility in the Winter months, and for the same reasons. The real offensive, it is to be hoped, will begin in the Spring, when the Tsar's armies have been drilled and equipped, and the ground becomes firm enough for the conveyance of heavy guns. Until then, we must be content with brief telegrams recording local encounters, and trust that these encounters, however insignificant they may appear at present, are tending surely, if slowly, to the desired end and aim of the Allies' strategy—the wearing down of the enemy. For, let it be remembered, even though the Allies should lose men in equal proportion with the enemy, because the Allies' man power is some millions higher than the enemy's, the advantage rests with the Allies. And that the losses have been equal is by no means an assured fact. German tactics—massed attacks—have led to great slaughter of German battalions, far in excess, it would seem, of that inflicted on the Allies, at least in the West.

Italy.

In view of the difficulty which many experience to realize the value of the work done by the Italian army, the following extracts from two articles contributed by an Italian writer to the *Times*, will be useful: "As far as can be ascertained, the Italians began operations [in May] with an effective force of some 700,000 men, spread out along the whole frontier, the apparent numerical superiority [over the Austro-Hungarians] being largely neutralized by the nature of the ground, which, save at a few points on the lower Isonzo, precluded the utilization of large masses of men.

Indeed, only those Franco-British troops that have fought in the Peninsula of Gallipoli, can imagine the difficulty of the ground near Gorizia; and none save men who have fought on the North-West Frontier of India, can appreciate the effort of the Italian soldiers in carrying, at the point of the bayonet, peaks between 8,000 and 12,000 ft. high, or in mounting the largest siege guns above the snow-line. Yet, in spite of these difficulties, and notwithstanding the transformation of the Trentino by Austria into one immense fortress bristling with guns, in spite of the successive lines of trenches on the Isonzo, General Cadorno's army has continued its offensive from day to day without a serious set-back......" *London Weekly Times*, 3–12–15.

When hostilities began, Austria "held all the passes, controlled all the valleys and all the roads giving access to Italy. To-day this situation is completely reversed. Italy now possesses... the routes for the invasion of Austria, and the roads for the conquest of the Trentino, which are being cleared and prepared......Around Gorizia, the Austrian defences are reduced to the last line of trenches. When the immense system of permanent and semi-permanent fortifications at this point has been overcome, the Italians will not only have opened the road to Trieste, but will also have cleared the whole region from the hill of Tarvis to the sea, along the natural frontier to which they aspire. Thus they will have gained control of all the roads leading towards Villach and Laibach." *Times*, 17-12-15.

The Official Italian *Résumé* of the results accomplished, may fitly be added here: "The Italians have acquired a rich and populous region in the Trentino, have prevented the Austrian invasion of Venetia, cut an important Austrian strategic road in the Dolomites, maintained possession of the Carnia border against persistent Austrian attacks, established a firm footing on the left bank of the Isonzo, and are holding in check the fortress of Tolmino, which is at the mercy of the Italian guns, rendering the town of Gorizia uninhabitable. The Italians have pushed back the Austrian line of defence beyond the Isonzo and the Carso Plateau, where the Italians are firmly established. The Austrians in the Isonzo region have lost 30,000 prisoners, many guns and much material......" 30 Jan. Such are the results obtained since the Italians entered the lists in May.

A secondary campaign is about to begin in Albania. An Italian force is preparing to defend Avlona against the Austrians. These latter are concentrating against Durazzo; if that harbour falls into their hands,—a not unlikely contingency,—the possession of Avlona, which is the key to the Adriatic, will be fiercely contested.

Balkans.

In the last days of October, the Germans and Bulgarians effected a junction in N. E. Serbia; and a few days later (November) they joined up with a large Austrian force marching from the West. Nish, the capital of Serbia, was captured after long and hard fighting, and slowly the Serbian army was pushed back. Meanwhile French and British contingents were marching from Salonika in the endeavour to secure the passes along the Salonika-Nish railway, and to prevent a large Bulgarian army from intercepting the retreat of the Serbian armies on Monastir. The French inflicted a serious check on the Bulgarians at Krivolak (S. Serbia.) A few days later, the Serbians reinforced by French and British contingents, drove the enemy from the Babuna Pass, and opened the road from Prilep to Monastir.

But the success was only temporary. The Allies abandoned the pass before large Bulgarian reinforcements which threatened to cut them off from their bases.

At Prilep the Serbians still held up the enemy. Here they defeated the Bulgarians, and on the Leskovatz-Nish railway, a German army. These successes, however, only delayed the retreat. The retirement had to be continued towards Albania. (November.)

The Allies were too late to save the desperate situation. When Serbia was attacked by Bulgaria, she appealed to her Ally, Greece, to come to her help, in accordance with the terms of the Treaty of mutual defence signed by the two nations after the second Balkan War. 300,000 Greeks thrown into Bulgaria would have neutralized the warlike activities of that treacherous nation, and saved Serbia from her plight; for Serbia was confident, with a confidence based on past achievements, of being able to deal single-handed with any force of invaders from the North and West, as successfully as she had dealt with the Austrian 'Punitive expedition' twelve months earlier. But she could not deal simultaneously with an attack by an overwhelming force from the rear. She called on Greece to fulfil her Treaty obligations.

Now Greece has a Germanized king. That Germanized king, in the face of his solemn treaty obligations, in defiance of his word pledged to the Allies by his minister Venizelos,—that king, refused to stand by his Serbian Allies. He salved his conscience and sought to pacify the *Entente* Powers by setting forth this paltry pretext in palliation of his disloyalty, that national interest must pass before treaties and a plighted word. He preferred wealth to honour. King Albert when placed in a similar predicament, chose slavery—*German* slavery and its attendant horrors—for his people. And that is

why Belgium, enslaved, pillaged, terrorized, reduced in order to avoid starvation to pick up the crumbs that fall from the table of rich America, Belgium in her rags and fetters, is glorious in the eyes of all the nations that still hold honour a thing worth fighting for.

The Greeks not only deserted their Allies the Serbians, but it seems, meditated treachery against those other Allies the French and British, whom they had invited to Salonika to be their advanced guard against the Bulgarians, and to bear the brunt of the first shock of the Barbarian armies. We have yet much to learn of the causes that brought about the visit to Athens of Mr. Cochin the French envoy, and of Lord Kitchener a few days later. What they told his Germanized Majesty, King Constantine, has not been made public. But the fact that the Allies began to take steps to bring the Greeks to a sane frame of mind, by exerting economic pressure and by detaining all Greek ships in the Allies' harbours, and exacted guarantees of good behaviour and of freedom of action at Salonika where the Allies had landed at the Greeks' invitation, leads one to suspect that all Greek dealings were not above board.

Meanwhile, Greek treachery had done the mischief. The Allies who relied on the Greeks, arrived too late to be of any great use to the retreating Serbian armies; and those armies taken in the rear by an enemy whom the Greeks had pledged their word they would hold in check, had to abandon their country to the Barbarians in order to escape being surrounded and annihilated.

Throughout December the retreat continued. The Bulgarians occupied Prizrend and forced the pace of the retreat, and threatened Montenegro in its turn. The Allies who had advanced to the help of the Serbians, unable to join them or keep the passes open, abandoned Krivolak, and fell back first on Demir Kapu, then on Salonika, which they fortified against attack. At this stage, the Greeks yielded to the Allies' pressure, and withdrew their army of 100,000 men, which had been gathered there, seemingly to do honour to the Allies, and which had done nothing but impede, in every conceivable way, the dispatch of reinforcements to Serbia.

The Montenegrins in their turn were being hard pressed. That brave little nation of barely 50,000 soldiers, had long held the Austrians in check. In January they were driven from a strong position on Mount Lovchen. The Austrians, who thought them beaten, offered terms of peace. But true to their Allies, confident of final victory in this darkest hour of defeat, they refused to accept terms, and continued the fight.

The Serbian campaign was finished in four months (Oct.-Jan.) Outflanked and outnumbered, betrayed by their Allies the Greeks, short of ammunitions and supplies of all sorts, the Serbians retired into Albania, then to Corfu. Their country was given over to the mercies of the Kultur apostles and their disciples the Turks and the Bulgarians. The Franco-British however held and fortified Salonika. This fortress amply manned and armed, open to the sea and the world, is well able to give an account of itself. The forces are under General Sarrail who foiled and defeated 18 months ago every German attempt to pierce the French armies at Verdun. The defence is in sure hands. Meanwhile the enemy, who had detached considerable forces from the Russian front for the Balkan campaign, has been compelled to withdraw part of those forces to meet the Russian attacks. The "army of Egypt", as the Germans jubilantly called the forces that had broken the Serbian resistance, and that were to march triumphantly through Syria into Egypt, for all the world as though the way to the Suez Canal and beyond was going to be left open to them, the "army of Egypt" had to beat a retreat to the Pinsk marshes and Bukovina to prop up the tottering armies of Austria. And thus ended, as far as Germany is directly concerned, the golden dream of Asiatic conquests.

With Salonika threatening the flank of his armies, it is doubtful whether, after all the sacrifices entailed, the Balkan campaign has brought much positive gain to the enemy. Hemmed in on the West and on the East, desperate of ever breaking through the lines that tighten about him day by day, he has broken loose in the Balkans, and added some thousands more of square miles to the territory which he must garrison, territory of little economic value to him, for it affords few, if any, supplies for the Central Empires. And before any great expedition can be set afoot Eastward, the defenders of Salonika must be driven back to their boats, or failing that, an army of 300,000 men must be left to besiege them. In Belgium—the cases are parallel—the German armies could not feel secure until they had taken Antwerp, and driven out (for they failed in their plans to capture) the Belgian army. An army on the flank is a constant menace.

Salonika may become the point of departure for Constantinople, or Sophia, or Monastir, when the proper time comes. And till then, it immobilizes the enemy, who knows that any attempt to take it, must be exceedingly costly to him. With the experimental knowledge which they have acquired of the value of fortresses, and which Sarrail and his staff have put to good use, with the Greek menace removed, the Allies are not likely to see repeated at Salonika the disasters that befell Namur, Maubeuge and Antwerp.

All considered, the outlook in the Balkans is far from desperate. Salonika is open to the world, and will remain so, till what time the Kiel Canal Fleet wrests from Britain the command of the seas ; and 18 months' timid hiding in a canal is not the most efficacious preparation for such a task.

Turkey.

Serbia conquered, the way from Berlin to Constantinople was free. Guns and munitions were rushed through to the Turks who sorely needed them. Soon the Turkish batteries in Gallipoli increased their fire against the Allies' lines.

But the Allies did not relax their grip, until ordered to do so from Home. They might not force the Turks from their positions on the impregnable hills ; but neither had the Turks the power to force them to re-embark. Still, the task of seizing the hills that command the Narrows was impossible. (The word 'impossible' is here used in its strict sense.) The attack on Sari Bahr, the account of which by Sir Ian Hamilton has been published in the papers of this country, leaves no doubt whatever about that point. The attackers did all that flesh and blood can do ; they fought overwhelming odds, they scaled cliffs which had been pronounced by the best military authorities to be unscalable ; they continued to fight hour after hour when they had lost all or most of their officers, and when battalions had lost 75 per cent of their men—in defiance of all the rules of war, and notably of that dictum of the Germans that no army will continue to fight when its losses are 25 per cent of its total numbers engaged ; *they* had lost not 25 per cent but three times that amount, and yet they fought on, doggedly, animated by the same spirit as sustained their fellows in the retreat from Mons, the spirit that upset all the abstract theories of the German officers, who declared that the men at Mons were beaten beyond recovery according to all the rules of war, but that they either did not know they were beaten or would not acknowledge defeat.

Throughout November the war in the trenches continued, till it was at last seen that heroic lives were now being thrown away to no great purpose. 200,000 Turks, it is true, were held up in Gallipoli ; but still more important work was waiting to be done elsewhere, at Salonika, in Egypt and Mesopatamia.

Then there were the difficulties of supplies and climate to be taken into account. Six months earlier, geographical experts had declared that Gallipoli, if it was to be forced at all, should be

forced before the Winter set in; for the storms would prevent the regular replenishing of supplies, and the troops, confined to a narrow strip of coast shut out by steep cliffs and ravines, must suffer untold hardships in the changeable climate. A correspondent of the *Daily Mail*, Mr. Price, writing on 13th Dec., gave the following description of the state of things:—

"It is the weather rather than the enemy that is capable of giving trouble. ......Down the gullies, turned into raging torrents by the cloudburst that preceded the blizzard [at the end of November], their bodies, [i.e., of Turks] came washing along with the carcases of mules and all sorts of equipment. Their [Turks] trenches, too, were so completely flooded that they had to get out of them and lie about in the open, being actively shot down by our men, though some of the latter were too stiff to pull the trigger, and almost dead with cold, had not strength enough to raise their rifles, but stood there, and as one officer told me, could only grin at the Turks."

"......It was no ordinary Winter storm. First it rained in torrents for twelve hours. The narrow trenches, often cut in hard rock or tenacious clay, were flooded to the height of the thighs. ......The steep saps that climb the slopes of the trenches, became cascades. The gullies along which the stores are brought from the beach, resumed their natural function of water-courses. Impossible to light a fire, to have any food but cold bully and damp biscuit; the men soaked through to the very skin.

Then the wind shifted suddenly to the north, and a bitter, biting, piercing frost set in. The drenched great-coats were so stiff that they would stand up by themselves. The water froze round the men's feet as they lay snatching the wretched sleep of utter exhaustion. Some of them were kept alive only by being made to work hard all night with pick and shovel. A wind sprang up from the north so strong that you could not stand against it. It lashed the face and inflamed the eyes...... The gale... brought snow with it. Frozen, buffeted by wind and sleet, with hardly the possibility of motion to keep the circulation alive, the men endured agonies. Sentries watching through the loopholes in the parapets, were found dead at their posts, when their turn came to be relieved, frozen, rigid, their stiff fingers still clutching the rifle in an ironfast grip, the blackend face still leaning, under its sack-cloth curtain, against the loophole.

Yet, through all this, the troops kept uncomplainingly to their duty, and the men who died, died with firm lips." (*Overseas Daily Mail*, Jan. 1916.)

In Dec. and Jan. the troops withdrew from Gallipoli, not under pressure from the enemy, but because the commanders and Lord Kitchener deemed the step advisable. They withdrew without the loss of a man or a gun; what stores were left, were set on fire; and as the last man turned to the sea, a gigantic mine was sprung under the feet of the Turks, that hurled scores of them into eternity. As the ships steamed away, the Turks at last realized that the enemy had gone; had accomplished the retirement under their very eyes, yet without their knowledge. A few erratic shells from the Turkish batteries fell harmlessly into the sea; the Allied warships fired a farewell salute of live shells into the Turkish positions. The Allies were gone. Doubtless the Turks will see them again not far from Gallipoli before the year is many months old.

The Gallipoli campaign may have been a failure, if only the primary object, viz., the forcing of the Dardanelles, is kept before the mind, and if we overlook the secondary but very valuable objects which were attained, such as the waging of the war on the Turks' instead of on the Allies' territory, the forced withdrawal of Turkish troops from the Caucasus where the Russians were not prepared to meet them, the thwarting of Turkish designs on Egypt, etc. But, failure or no failure, it is a page of glory that will never fade from the annals of the British Empire. That

story will be remembered with pride by Australia and New Zealand, when they have grown to be great nations, and the strife of former days is no more.

Mesopotamia, the Caucasus, Persia, Egypt.

After their defeat at Kut-el-Amara the Turks retreated up the Tigris to Ctesiphon, 20 miles from Baghdad. There they made another stand and sustained another defeat. (November.)

Then the unexpected happened. The Turks had withdrawn part of their armies from the Caucasus to stem the British advance. Attacked by these greatly superior forces, the British retreated to their strong positions at Kut-et-Amara lower down the Tigris, where they entrenched to await the arrival of the troops that were on their way from Flanders and Gallipoli (Dec.). The relieving army under General Aylmer defeated the Turks at Sheikh Saad and Orah (Jan.)

The weakening of the Turkish armies in the Caucasus brought its own penalty. The Russians defeated the Turks near Lake Van (Dec.) and again on the river Arkhave (Jan.). They scored a still greater victory over three Turkish army corps near Erzerum, one of the three being annihilated. Prisoners and guns fell into the hands of the victors, and the Russian cavalry followed up the scattered remnants to the very outskirts of Erzerum. Simultaneously a Russian army was on the march to Trebizond. (Jan.)

The conquest of Serbia, so far, has not profited either the Germans or the Turks very materially. The former soon found that they had business on the Russian front, which called for immediate attention and sadly interfered with the prosecution of their plans of Eastern conquests; the latter, who were to help them, are finding their work cut out for them in Armenia and Mesopotamia. Before the march to India becomes feasible, a few trifling difficulties will have to be overcome; to mention a few:—The Kaiser will need the men for the undertaking; to spare the men, he must defeat decisively the Franco-British in the West or the Russians in the East, and until he has accomplished that simple task he is confronted with a shortage of men rather than embarrassed with a surplus. When he has got the men, he will have to reduce Salonika. When he has disposed of the Salonika threat, he will have to mass his armies at Baghdad—1500 miles from Constantinople. There, in addition to the Russian threat from Armenia, he is likely to meet with some resistance from the British. Then the greatest difficulty of all remains to be solved. He may elect one of two routes, the land route or the sea route. The land route, pleasant enough for Alexander, is impossible in these days of great guns; and as to the sea route—The alarmists who hear at regular intervals that the Germans are coming to India, would do well to think an instant. They forget that an invader would need 100 large ships to transport his armies across the Persian Gulf; that in these prosaic days, the old wishing cap has ceased to perform the prodigies it was credited with when the world was in its childhood, and that all the wishing caps ever invented by poets for the delight of children, would not supply the needful ships; if they did, it would take more than a wishing cap to remove the British squadron that would be found in due attendance to sink any ship attempting the passage. Nothing short of a 12-in. shell—and not always that—can persuade Jack Tar to move out of the way.

But, because the attack on India is a dream, it must not be thought that the Germans will not attempt to do mischief. Mischief has been engineered in Persia. Instigated by German spies, tribesmen, with a stiffening of prowling Arabs and Kurds, have given some trouble. Fortunately the Russians were within reach to prevent the trouble assuming serious dimensions. They crushed the rebels in two encounters, one near Hamadan, the other at Lake Urumiyah. (Dec., Jan.) Before long, a chain of Anglo-Russian troops will stretch from the

Caspian to Basra and the Persian Gulf, and shut off Germany and Turkey from the East.

German machinations have met with no more success in Egypt. The Tripolitan Arabs, duped like their cousins of Persia, made a raid on the Egyptian frontier in December. There they met with a surprise reception which the German spies had forgotten to warn them against. A British force was waiting for them in the desert; and the usual result followed: the Arabs left some hundreds of tribesmen dead on the field and a considerable booty of sheep and camels.

Sea-power.

The following extract from an article by an American writer, Mr. Simonds, quoted in the *London Weekly Times* (31 Dec. 1915), sums up the situation:—"The right to use the sea, Germany can regain only in two ways—by compelling Great Britain to relinquish the command of the sea, or by complying with the terms fixed by Great Britain as the price of the use of the sea. One would be the consequence of victory, the other of defeat. But up to the present moment, Germany has not been able in the smallest way to exert any force upon Great Britain to compel her to give up the mastery of the seas. Every effort made by the Germans has ended in decisive defeat. If you set against the German occupation of 8,400 [1] square miles of French territory the British control of the sea, you have measured the exact condition between the contending powers of the West. It is plain that no hardship of France is comparable with that of Germany, because France, thanks to British sea-power, is able to get coal and iron from abroad....

"Now, if peace were to be considered to-day, it is evident that Germany would have to evacuate France, and Belgium as well. In no other way could she persuade the British to permit her ships to sail the seas, and she has no present means of compelling such consent. But this would be to restore things to their exact status before the war; it would mean that for her tremendous sacrifices, Germany had gained nothing from France or Great Britain, but had lost her colonies. Conceivably the British would not make such a bargain. Then what? Either Germany will have to offer more, or she will have to remain in a condition which will mean paralysis of her industrial establishment.... Her conquests in Belgium and France are valueless save only as they provide a basis for bargaining with Great Britain over the blockade. They look imposing on the map, but actually Germany is in the position of a burglar who has got into a house and gathered up the silver, but cannot get away. In her war with Great Britain and France, it is plain that Germany has been beaten...."

The conclusion to be drawn from the above remarks—and the remarks are in accordance with facts—is that, if Great Britain did no more than guard the seas, Germany must eventually either starve or surrender. Here we have the explanation of the curious phenomenon of Germany's singling out Great Britain for special execration in a foolish hymn of hate. France, it seems, she could almost love; Russia she could forgive; but Britain—Britain is her master; Britain she cannot, dare not attack; Britain she fears with a cowardly impotent hate. Now suppose Britain at war with France. Would the French fleet lie rusting in Cherbourg habour and leave to Britain, untried, undisputed, the mastery of the seas? Jack Tar would have had to see to his laurels before now. Would Paris—Berlin did—go into ecstasies over a silly poem more likely to injure the singer's spleen than the enemy's ships? Skulking in a canal is not the best preparation for the supreme battle for the mastery of the seas; lurking behind one's mines while the enemy fleet sweeps away one's ships or chases them into neutral harbours, is

[1] *Note.*—The Allies have conquered 600,000 square miles of German colonies, *i.e.*, three times the extent of the German Empire in Europe.

not a very efficacious means to protect one's ocean-borne trade, even though one publishes at regular monthly intervals a boastful account of an imaginary cruise in search of the British fleet in Heligoland Bight. The British fleet is where the sea is deep. Behind that fleet is the world, open to us, shut to Germany. 72 German steamers, some of them among the largest and most luxurious liners in the world, ships of the value of £ 20,000,000 are laid up in the harbours of the United States, rusting, useless,—more than useless to their owners, for the harbour dues alone have amounted to close upon £ 1,000,000. They are lying snugly under the protection of international law in neutral harbours, while a British cruiser keeps watch over them from beyond the five-mile limit;—72 large ships that would bring to Germany much that she is need of, if only the German fleet could rule the waves.

Colonial.

In addition to blockading Germany, guarding the coasts of the Allies, and keeping the world open to us, the Fleet has severed the connexion between Germany and her colonies. One by one they have passed into better hands: Tsingtau, the Pacific colonies, Togoland, South West Africa. Kamerun (W. Africa), with the portion of the Congo which Germany robbed France of in 1911 under threat of war—"Your money or your life" has ever been the watchworld of the highwayman—has recently been conquered by the Franco-British. (Jan.) The last German defenders are crossing the frontier into the Spanish colony of Rio Muni with the Allies on their track. Germany's last possession abroad, East Africa, will soon have seen the last of the Barbarian civilizers. The conquest has begun. (Jan.)

Conclusion.

These are days of great expectation. For most of us, the Spring gives promise of great deeds to be done. But in the midst of our hopes, we must not forget that we are only in the second year of war, and that Lord Kitchener spoke of three years. We must not forget that if the Allies did no more than man the trenches while the blockade of Germany continued by land and sea, Germany would have to lay down her arms beaten and submissive. Time is for us. With Austria, bankruptcy is an accomplished fact; with Germany, it is a near contingency; with the Allies it is nowhere in sight. We can afford to wait, to grow stronger with every day that passes, by the arming of ever fresh supplies of men and the making of ever fresh supplies of guns. Our reserves of men and material are great beyond comparison with those of the enemy; the end of his reserves is well in sight, perhaps was reached some time ago.

Germany was defeated in the battle of the Marne; her doom was sounded there. The Marne meant the hurling back of the invader to the frontier, and the hemming in of him there; that in its turn meant time for the Allies to prepare for war; and the only chance of Germany's succeeding, was to beat them unprepared. Since the Marne, the war has become a question of preparation. That preparation, we hope, is now finished.

Waiting is trying to one's temper. But waiting has become a habit at home. "The people [of England] are not swayed by hopes or fears or even enmities. They neither complain of past blunders nor look for immediate successes... The war is, for the present, a state of being which must continue till victory is won, and they themselves will do all they can to win it... They consent to it as they consent to life, and will take part in it as they take part in life". [*Times Lit. Suppl.*, 7-1-1916.] When the nation as a whole has settled down to the business of war in that quiet spirit, time or duration is of no great account. They know they can hold on longer than the enemy, and hold on they will, with that unaffected, unflurried calm and phlegm so characteristic of the race. War has become the business of the nation for the time being; and the nation will carry it on and see it through, with the same steady,

dispassionate outlook as it brings to its ordinary business.

With such a spirit animating not only Britain but all the Allies, there can be only one issue to the struggle, though that issue may still be long delayed.

NAVAL LOSSES, 1 NOV. 1915 - 1 FEB. 1916.

	Pre-Dreadnought Battleships.	Armoured Cruisers.	Light Cruisers.	Destroyers.	Submarines.	Armed Liners.	Transports.	Gunboats.	Patrols.
Britain, France, Italy, Russia ...	1	1		3	6	1	1		
Germany, Austria-Hungary, Turkey			4	6	9		2	2	1

NOTE.—**Submarine and Zeppelin warfare.**

The blind savagery which characterizes the German submarine campaign and Zeppelin raids, is the measure of German impotence and anger. By these two methods of warfare—or rather of murder—Germany seeks to terrorize Great Britain into conceding what she cannot obtain in fair fight, that is, the freedom of the seas. She has succeeded so far only in steeling our determination to avenge civilisation for the outrages done to it; and she has come into conflict with the greatest (measured by square miles, not by self-respect) of the Neutral Powers, the United States of America. A year ago, the Germans sank the *Falaba* (a West Africa liner) outward bound with a large number of passengers; while the passengers were drowning, the German pirates jeered at them. That exploit over non-combatants was followed by the appalling crime of the *Lusitania*, when 1300 civilians, among whom many Americans, were drowned; the news of the crime was received with jubilation throughout Germany: the school children were given a holiday to impress that great victory of a warship over defenceless women and children, on their minds, and the Kaiser and his head pirate sent telegrams of congratulations to each other! Then the *Arabic*, *Ancona*, *Ville de la Ciotat*, and last of all, the *Persia*, were torpedoed; one and all sunk without warning or time given to the passengers and crew to take to their boats; sunk, and the hundreds of non-combatants aboard left to drown or die of exhaustion. In each case the deed was deliberate murder, differing from what we are accustomed to call murder only by the magnitude of the crime and the large number killed with one blow. It is by such heroic victories that Germany seeks to defeat the nations leagued against her. It is of course easier to kill defenceless civilians with a blow delivered unseen than to meet armed men on equal terms.

The Zeppelin raids are signs of the same impotent anger. A dozen raids have been made under the safe cover of darkness: some hundred civilians have been killed, and damage has been done to private property. The raiders have not always escaped scot-free. Last June a Zeppelin was brought down by Lieutenant Warneford; in January, another fell damaged by gunfire into the North Sea, and its crew of thirty murderers fresh from their work of blood were drowned.

A small section of the British public, bearing in mind only the fact that the Huns are daring in their felonies so long as they think they can perpetrate them with impunity, have advocated a policy of reprisals. We have the means; they demand that we should use them and retaliate by raiding a German town. But retaliation is murder. It is murder to kill unoffending civilians even in war time. Murder does not justify counter-murder; it cannot be used as a means to prevent murder, because it is intrinsically wicked, and even when called by the name of reprisals, it is still murder. Then we are helpless against air-raids? Quite so, except in so far as gunfire and air-planes are effective. But, as for the protection which the moral law and the divine command not to murder give, we have none against Germany. Official Germany recognizes no such hindrances.

2 February 1916.

C. LEIGH S.J.

THE WAR. (*Appendix.*)

	West.	East.	Naval.	Turkey.	Balkans.
November	Continuous bombardment of German lines by Allies' artillery. Germans attempt to gain a footing in Allies' lines—always without success. German attack on Tahure defeated. Fighting at Hartmannsweilerkopf. Frequent Allied air-raids on German depots. No considerable actions fought owing to the Winter.	German attacks on Riga and Dvinsk finally checked; total failure of their plans to secure Riga-Dvinsk line. Russian victory on the Strypa; at Kolki; 13,000 prisoners taken. Series of minor victories in the Marsh regions. Germans defeated at Olyka. Last German stroke at Illuxt; defeated with loss of two generals.	B. destroyer sunk in collision. F. submarine lost in Sea of Marmara. G. submarine captured by British. G. cruiser (*Undine*) torpedoed by British. B. destroyer wrecked in Mediterranean. 2 G. Submarines sunk off Gibraltar. G. cruiser (*Frauenlob*) torpedoed by British. B. submarine lost in Sea of Marmara. G. patrol boat sunk by Russians. G. submarine destroyed by B. airman. G. submarine interned in Dutch harbour. B. transport torpedoed in Mediterranean.	Turks defeated at Ctesiphon, 20 miles from Baghdad. Trench warfare in Gallipoli; 200,000 Turks held up. 190 T. supply ships (altogether from the beginning of war) sunk by B. & F. submarines in Sea of Marmara, and 4000 by Russians in Black Sea (in the same period).	Serbians hemmed in from North, West and East, and threatened from South by Bulgarians driving at Monastir; fall back towards Albania. Bulgarians checked at Izvor by French and Serbians. Allied Force too late to effect a junction with main Serbian army *via* Salonika-Nish railway. Nish captured by the enemy. Enemy checked at Prilep and on Nish-Leskovatz line. French success over Bulgarians at Krivolak; failure to join hands with Serbian army. Kitchener and Cochin at Athens: good grounds to think the Greeks intend treachery to the Allies. Economic pressure on Greece until she has given guarantees to the Allies for her good behaviour. Monastir evacuated by Serbians.

	West.	East.	Naval.	Turkey.	Balkans.
December	Trench warfare; mining, artillery, aerial activity. French victory at Hartmanns-weilerkopf; 1600 Germans made prisoners.	Smorgon taken by Russians. Bukovina again invaded by Russians.	T. transport sunk by F. submarine. T. destroyer sunk, and train shelled on Ismid railway by B. submarine. F. submarine sunk by Austrians. 2 T. gunboats sunk by Russians. A. submarine sunk by Italians. G. destroyer and cruiser (*Bremen*) torpedoed by B. submarine. 2 A.-G. submarines sunk by B. transport. A. transport sunk by F. submarine. 2 A. destroyers sunk off Durazzo. F. submarine sunk by Austrians.	Russian victory near Lake Van. Anzacs withdraw from Suvla Bay. British fall back to Kut-el-Amara before Turkish army largely reinforced. Russians occupy Kum & Hamadan (Persia) after defeating bands of Kurds under German leaders. Tripoli Arabs deluded by German promises, raid Egyptian frontier, and are severely punished.	Prizrend taken by Bulgarians. Serbian army retires into Albania to reorganize for the Spring campaign. As consequence of Serbian withdrawal, Allies abandon Krivolak, fall back on Demir Kapu pass, and finally to Salonika which they fortify.
1916 January	Trench warfare. German attacks at Loos, Cuinchy, Neuville, Tahure etc.	Russian pressure increases in Bukovina; part of the A.-G. troops withdrawn from the Balkans in consequence.	B. armoured cruiser (*Natal*) blows up. B. submarine founders off Dutch coast. B. pre-dreadnought battleship (*King Edward VII*) sunk by a mine.	Russian victory over the Turks on Arkhave river. Russian victory near Erzerum; one Turkish corps destroyed.	Mount Lovchen captured from Montenegrins by Austrians. Montenegrins refuse to negociate peace with Austria, and go on fighting. Allies occupy Corfu, as base for the Serbian army.

	Russian successes on the Strypa; and near Czernowitz. Russian victory at Tchartorysk. German losses of men and material in Pinsk marshes.	A. cruiser (*Novara*?) sunk by F. submarine. G. torpedo boat blows up. A. destroyer sunk by B. submarine. G. *Goeben* continues to run away; damaged by Russian battleship.	Russians march on Trebizond and Erzerum. Kurds defeated by Russians at Lake Urumiyah (Persia). B. withdraw from Cape Helles. Turks defeated at Sheikh Saad and Orah by British marching to relief of Kut-el-Amara. French occupy Castellorizo (off Asiatic coast); base for operations against Adalia.	Much talk of German attack on Egypt. But Salonika (like Antwerp when the rest of Belgium was occupied) threatens the flank; the desert must be passed; B. army is ready in Egypt; Germans have their hands full in France and Russia, and Turks have other more urgent business to attend to in Caucasus and Mesopotamia than an expedition (doomed to fail) to the Suez Canal. Montenegro overrun by the enemy. French air raids on German and Bulgarian camps.

Colonial :—

Kamerun conquered by Franco-British force.
Remains to Germany only East Africa, where a large British army has begun operations.

The Budget.

By L. A. COSTELLO, *V Hons. Class.*

A brief account of the University Lectures delivered on "The Budget" to the History Honours students of our College, may perhaps be of interest to your readers. They will, I am sure, freely exonerate me if I fail to deal succinctly or with an adequate measure of justice within the short space of one or two articles, with what took twenty-three lectures of erudite exposition. My impression all along, while writing this summary, has been 'as though some great commander had led the storming party up to the walls of the citadel, had fired the powder in the train, and then left me in the breach.' However, there is naught to do, but forthwith 'advance'!

The study of 'The Budget' is a study of treasury administration: it is a large item in the study of Public Finance. All authors are not agreed on the content of the term 'Public Finance;' some, for instance, Leroy Beaulieu, would take exception to its including State expenditure. For our present purpose, it is enough to assume its existence without enquiring into its origin. State revenue, State expenditure, the Balancing of the two, are our subject-matter; while the term 'Budget' will be taken in the sense of financial arrangements made by the State for a given period (generally, not necessarily, annual), with the implication that they have been submitted to the Legislature for approval. The Budget, whether presented to the House as a Bill or Project of Law, must necessarily be in its final form, an Act of Parliament.

We shall take up the various aspects or methods of budget-making and touch incidentally on points of political or economic importance. We shall dwell chiefly on the parallel between the various administrative systems of the most financially advanced countries. In the life of the Budget from birth to death, so to say, we pass successively from the lowest clerk in any way engaged in the Finance department, to the Chancellor of the Exchequer, and from the chambers of the Chancellor to the lobbies of Parliament. When the Budget has been voted, we shall glance hurriedly at the complex machinery set in motion to put it into execution. Then passing on to the last phases of the Budget's existence, we shall assist at the Treasury rendering to Parliament an account of its stewardship; and over the closing scenes of the final *post mortem* held by the General Audit, we shall speedily draw the veil.

PREPARATION OF THE BUDGET.

The preparation of the Budget generally devolves upon the Executive as its special right and duty; the power of the purse as vested in Parliament is sufficiently exercised by the control and the vote of the Legislative on the Estimates of the year. The privilege of the Executive to initiate the Budget exists only in Parliamentary Governments. In America, for instance, the Executive has a minor part to play; it is largely subservient to Congress. As members of the administration and specialists—each in their own line,—it is only natural to suppose that Cabinet ministers are the most competent to draw up the Budget. M.P.'s are only concerned with their constituency; the ministers can and do feel the financial pulse of the Nation as a whole. Thus it is that the all-powerful English House of Commons willingly surrenders its right of initiating finance in favour of the responsible ministers of the Crown. 'The Crown demands money, the Commons grant it, and the Lords assent to the grant.' The Standing Orders of the House of Commons forbid the initiation by an M.P., of any specific grant, though expenditure may be suggested in certain directions. In the French Constitution, there is a mixture of Governmental and Parliamentary initiative; the power of

controlling finance is shared by Executive and Legislative with the result that there is no limit to the excesses to which French M.P.'s may go. This is fatal to a good Budget, and the ultimate result in France is almost always a deficit. Belgium and Italy have similar systems of mixed initiative, but the spirit of recent changes in their Standing Orders tends to secure as little interference as possible with the exercise of its functions by Government. Foremost among non-Parliamentary government stands America, the very basis of whose constitution is the separation of powers. The right of initiative belongs to Congress; all that is required of the Executive is a report, not even a Project of Law. The Secretary of the Treasury hands in his report and forthwith his responsibility ceases; neither the man who deals with State Finance nor even the President himself exercises any appreciable influence in the matter. The German system of preparing the Budget has some apparent resemblances to the English, and certain resemblances to the American system. In Germany, of which the government is intrinsically a form of simple monarchy, the ultimate responsibility rests with the Kaiser and his Imperial Chancellor. The Bundesrath has the power of initiating finance and is apparently a factor that counts, but it has seldom exercised its right. Even if it did fall foul of the Chancellor's Budget, it is the Chancellor who has the last word.

Omitting, then, the abnormal case of Germany, the tendency in other European Constitutions is to exercise Parlimentary authority indirectly, by controlling and approving the estimates submitted by the Executive, to whom is allotted the task of their preparation. The Secretaries of the various Departments in consultation with the permanent heads of their administration, have at their disposal all the central documentation worked up from local sources. Estimates are prepared and sent in to the Finance Minister. In France, the Finance Minister is only one amongst equals; in his hands State finance is centralised, and he has the special privilege of drawing up the balance sheet of the year's Budget. With this document he may hope to influence the House, but over his colleagues he can exercise only moral suasion. He cannot control, diminish or augment their estimates as the Finance Minister in England can. The English Constitution provides a special Treasury Board to deal with questions of finance, and it is really made up of four satellites revolving round one sun, the Second Lord of the Treasury, or the Chancellor of the Exchequer. He corresponds to the Finance Minister abroad, but he has far greater authority, and upon him depends the traditional continuity of the fiscal policy of his country.

THE BUDGET PERIOD: ITS COMMENCEMENT.

The time given to preparing the Budget is different in different countries. France takes fifteen months, Belgium ten months, Italy and America six months, and England and India four months to prepare the Budget.

In France writs are issued at the end of October for the preparation of Estimates, not for the year commencing next January, but commencing January twelvemonth. This secures the long period of fifteen months for the revision of the Budget; but the advantage is more than counterbalanced by the immense disadvantage of preparing Estimates much too early to be accurate. Yet it is to preserve the traditional chronological unity of the Civil year that the French expose themselves to inevitable risks. France and Belgium both keep the Civil year (January-December), and so they have to prepare their Budgets a long while in advance.

In Italy and America the Financial year is different from the Civil year; the Financial year runs from 1st July to 30th June. The report of the Treasury is handed into Congress in December, with a view to beginning the year on the 1st of the following July. So also, in Italy, the discussion of the Budget begins with an

extraordinary session at which it is presented.

In England, the official Financial year runs from 1st April to 31st March, and the time of preparation is shorter than elsewhere. On the 1st of October the Estimates Circular is sent round to the Departments, and by the 1st of December, and not later than the 13th of January, all estimates must have been sent in: the only exception made is in the case of the Army and Navy Departments. By the 1st of February the Chancellor is in a position to judge the condition of State Finance, and usually in Cabinet conclave he settles the amounts to be voted for each of these two Departments. The Chancellor presents his Estimates to the House, and, if need be, the Army and Navy may then present memoranda explaining their special requirements. At the end of March, or early in April, the Chancellor makes the Budget speech. He sums up the Estimates of Expenditure, and then only declares his Estimates of Revenue for the Financial year just commencing. The discussion on the Budget then begins with the budget year itself, but Government is—very practically indeed—voted special supply credits with which to carry on its work for three or four months, till the passing of the Appropriation Bill in August. English financiers thus ensure remarkable accuracy in their Estimates by making them as near as possible to the time of execution.

Belgium, though keeping to the Civil year, does something very similiar. All State Revenues are voted by the end of December, the Expenditure items being left for discussion to the Financial year beginning in January, and special governmental allowances, called '*douziemes provisoires*,' are made every month.

THE BUDGET PERIOD: ITS CLOSURE.

In this connection something must be said on the closure of the Budget. There are, what we may call, 'overflowings' of each financial year,—certain expenses not fully incurred or revenues not fully realised. To deal with these, two methods of accounts are generally in use, viz., the '*Exercice*' and '*Gestion*' methods. The 'Exercice' account implies that a Budget must be made to complete itself, a sufficient length of time being allowed to reach a final balance; in other words, 'to organise and wind up the financial affairs of a twelvemonth, more than twelve months are needed'. The 'Gestion' system of accounts is the much more material process of reckoning accounts day by day and year by year, each year's Budget bringing forward the surplus or deficit from the previous year. This system has attracted the greatest of financiers, and though not so scientific, is every whit as good as the 'Exercice', where it can be made to work smoothly, as in England. The superiority of the 'Exercice' is that it affords the only mathematically true Budget, and provides a reliable basis for comparative study. Nevertheless, history proves that, in its working, the 'Exercice' system itself has not an altogether unblemished record.

The present 'Exercice' in France is based on the laws of 1889 and 1899, and allows a supplementary delay of three months for expenditure and four months for revenue. Beyond this time-limit further revenue is considered as belonging to the following year's Budget; but, as regards expenditure, the Finance Minister may, on presenting his accounts, be allowed an extra nine months to utilise his remaining surpluses. All financial affairs must then be wound up, and accounts forwarded to the '*Cour des Comptes*' for inspection.

England works on the 'Gestion' system and may not secure Budgets so technically true as France, but she expedites business and arrives at as near a moral approximation to truth as is humanly possible. As the 'overflowings' of every year, in normal times, amount to fairly the same sum, England may rightly claim that her Budgets are mutually self-adjusting. Besides, owing to the spirit of sympathy and co-operation between House and the

Cabinet, the ministers are never likely to tamper with financial integrity by trumping up swollen surpluses. The practical genius of England is perhaps best illustrated in the manner she winds up the finances of the year. For such items as will evidently extend to a longer period, the House does not stop abruptly on the 31st March, but passes a vote, say of £ 2,000,000, to the credit of the Pay-master General and washes its hand of further responsibility.

Italy, always keen to assimilate the best, follows the *via media*, combining a judicious mixture of both systems of accounts. The Gestion system is used for the ordinary financial year, while for such items as are still left open after the 30th June, special accounts are started working on 'Exercice'.

METHOD OF BUDGET PREPARATION.

A good Budget must be comprehensive. It requires that total gross expenditure and revenue be tabulated so as to be seen at a glance. Details of Departmental estimates are more appropriately supplied in quarterly and half-yearly reports, or even appendices to the Budget itself. Accuracy is another requisite of a good Budget. Accuracy depends primarily on the Finance Minister's personal qualities of sincerity and foresight, and secondarily on the special methods devised to assist him in his work. To secure accuracy, two systems have been successively tried in France where the Finance Minister starts his estimates so early and with economic conditions in a state of flux. First, basing himself on the estimates of the last year but one, he drew up his estimates allowing of course for any likely changes in economic policy, etc., that he might clearly foresee. Then was tried the second, or majorated, system, a financial *jeu d'esprit*, which was soon abandoned in favour of the older method. In other countries more reliance is placed on the judgment of the Finance Minister. He is required to use his judgment and to strive, as far as possible, to forecast economic conditions. Estimates thus drawn up have been found sufficiently accurate.

CONTENTS OF THE BUDGET.

We shall briefly indicate the contents of one or two typical National Budgets; first, the contents of the French Budget which is the longest of all. It is divided into three main parts: I. *L'Expose des Motifs*, II. The Project of Law, III. Additional Documents. Part I is like the preface of a book. In drawing it up the Finance Minister has precedence over the other ministers, and can wield a real influence over the House. He opens with an account of the national progress or otherwise, and gives a brief account of the two previous 'Exercices'. He makes a statement of the actual condition of Finance, and then introduces his Revenue Estimates for the year. Finally, he concludes by expatiating on some general topic of the day advocating this or that reform. Part II, or the Project of Law, is the main part of the French Budget; it consists of 4 titles, divided into 70 articles, which in turn are sub-divided into close on 1000 chapters. On each '*chapitre*' a distinct vote must be recorded; and this suggests the amount of work to be done and the amount of time to be spent on it. The four main articles are, (i) The General Budget, (ii) Additional Budgets, (iii) Special Dispositions, (iv) Ways and Means for certain Public Services. The General Budget contains the details of State Expenditure and Revenue arising from the normal functions of the State. Credits are open for the various Departments—Army, Navy, Civil Services,— as detailed in Appendix A. These are again revised and classed under certain headings, (*a*) The Public Debt, (*b*) The Public Departments, (*c*) The Services of these Departments, (*d*) Expenditure of the Revenue Department, (*e*) Returns, Conscience money, etc. It may bear repeating that French M.P.'s insist on examining each and every item of the year's Budget. They not only control the levy of new taxes, but the annual levy of a tax already voted must be again submitted to them. The

Additional Budgets include such expenditures as are too special to be classed in the General Budget, *e.g.*, the Nationalisation of Railways, Changes in the Currency System, etc. Parts III and IV make up what is called the Additional Documentation of the Budget. They are special arrangements for non-recurring items (*e.g.*, the Redemption of the Chinese Expedition Loan), and Ways and Means to meet special Public Services, the Redemption of short-period Treasury Bills and Exchequer Bonds.

The English Budget is divided into the Estimates of the two chief Services: I. The Consolidated Fund Services, II. The Supply Services. The latter are made up of four volumes of estimates, for the Army, Navy, Civil Services, and Revenue Departments. The Estimates are divided first into *Votes*, then into Sub-heads, and these into Items. Part I shows the table of *Votes*; and it is to be noted that in England, Parliament votes only on the '*Vote.*' Parliament may discuss any of the Sub-heads and Items, but it does not vote on them separately. Besides, all transfer of credits from one *Vote* to another is forbidden, except, again, in the case of the Army and Navy Departments. Part II consists of Sub-heads. Part III reviews details of the Items contained in the Sub-heads. On this point it may be worth noticing that some Departments (*e.g.*, the Navy) are allowed to retain small sums of money paid to them for services rendered. This is called an "Appropriation in Aid," and is not included in the ordinary *Votes* made to that Department. Occasionally also there are free gifts made by the State to some meritorious National Services, *e.g.*, the Royal Asiatic Society. The Pay-master General simply drafts a cheque in favour of its President, and the matter drops.

Extraordinary Budgets.

Besides the ordinary Budget of the year, there is also a class of Budgets called Extraordinary Budgets; these do not quite correspond to the Additional Budgets of France. Extraordinary Budgets are those in which extraordinary charges are met by extraordinary revenues. The question is, are they to be included in the Annual Budget or placed under Special Accounts? To answer this question, we may first roughly discriminate between Abusive, Optional, and Necessary kinds of Extraordinary Budgets. The first kind are most likely to occur in the Army and Navy Departments, in which a slight shock to national feeling may suffice to launch an Extraordinary Budget, and as these expenses cannot be borne by the yearly revenue, they must be borne by posterity. Optional Extraordinary Budgets are usually submitted in order to start useful Public Services which are expensive in the initial stages, but bring in after a time a handsome return. To include all such accounts in the Budget year by year, would be to alternate 'lean and fat' Budgets. The General Expenditure and Revenue should be so forecast, as to be evenly distributed over a number of years, to avoid any violent oscillations in Budget balances. There are, however, circumstances in history which would seem to necessitate the existence of the third class, or Necessary Extraordinary Budgets. The sudden contingency of a War may find the Ordinary Budget insufficient to cope with the financial strain, and justify the opening of separate accounts. Nevertheless we find that even the present war, with its enormous expenses, has not proved the necessity of an interruption of Budget unity, to which England still clings with heroic fidelity.

Before closing this part of our subject, it may be well to state clearly the relation in which the Budget stands to the Exchequer or national purse which it helps to deplete or fill. In modern times, there are three distinct processes in dealing with State finance. The Treasury organises it; the Pay-master General is the channel through which State expenditure is incurred; and the Bank of England, the Bank of Ireland, and six Scottish Banks represent the Receipt Department. The Exchequer has

nowadays none of its original splendour; it is no longer the royal coffer in which the King's revenues were collected, but is still, and more than ever, a moral entity occupied with State accounts. The State Exchequer, as at present constituted by the Consolidated Fund Acts, is made up of the sum-total of all the aggregate revenues paid into His Majesty's Exchequer From this 'unified purse' must be defrayed all State expenditure; and consequently all expenses for the Consolidated Fund Services and for the Supply Services must both be paid from this one source known as the Consolidated Fund.

(*To be Continued.*)

College Notes.

The Empire of Vijayanagar.

A Lecture by Mr. S. Krishnaswamy Iyengar.—On Monday, the 31st January, Mr. S. Krishnaswamy Iyengar, M.A., University Professor of Indian History, delivered a lecture in the Lawley Hall on Vijayanagar, illustrating it with magic lantern slides. After being introduced by Rev. Fr. Bertram S.J., Principal of the College, the lecturer said:—

Father Bertram, Ladies and Gentlemen.—The history of Vijayanagar cannot be compassed in a single lecture. My intention is rather to exhibit the capital city of the Empire as it appears at present, 400 years after its glories have passed away. But by way of introduction, I shall have to devote a few minutes to a very cursory view of the origin and destruction of the Empire of Vijayanagar.

In the very best of its days Vijayanagar embraced all that is the Madras Presidency at present, together with the Native States of Mysore, and Cochin, a not altogether negligible portion of the Nizam's Dominions, and the Southern Maharahta country in the Bombay Presidency. In that extent it did not exist for long. It grew into an Empire, from comparatively small beginnings under circumstances which peculiarly appealed to the Hindu population of this part of India.

Just about the commencement of the XIV century, the political condition of South India was anything but encouraging from the standpoint of the Hindus. The Muhammadan power exercised its authority over Hindustan, and had just penetrated the Narbada and the mountain barriers of the Vindyas. It had made successful incursions once or twice into one of the kingdoms of the South, and this was enough to give the Hindus a foretaste of what awaited them.

There were at that time five kingdoms in South India, the Yadavas, the Kakateeas, the Hoisalas, the Chola Kingdom which had broken up into two or three principalities, and the ancient Kingdom of the Pandyas. Disunited as they were, they were unable to stand against the united forces of Delhi.

About the end of the XIII century, the Muhammadans made successful raids against the nearest Hindu capital of the South, Deogiri. The enterprise was very tempting for the adventurous spirits in the Muhammadan Army. Each raid whetted their appetite; and raiding was the order of the day, so that the only safety for these Hindu kingdoms lay in union. The need of union was felt only after bitter experience. The only terms which the Emperor was prepared to accept from a kingdom which wished to surrender, were the alternatives—acceptation of Islam, surrender of all earthly belongings, or the sword. These were the terms

sent with a white flag, to the messenger of Pratap Rudra of Warangal. This indicated to the Hindus, very clearly, what Muhammadan conquest exactly meant.

But nobody need go away under the impression that I am condemning the administration of the Muhammadans. The settled Mussalman Government is one thing; their raids into other people's territories, it is another story. I am speaking of the violence of the preliminary raids into the southern kingdoms.

It was under these circumstances that the Hindu Kingdoms understood that union was necessary to protect Hindu civilization in this part of the country. A temporary military union under the Hoslas of Hallabi and the foundation of a frontier outpost for military purposes, developed, in the course of a century of unremitting labour, into the glorious city of Vijayanagar. That Imperial capital was destroyed by a union of Mussulman States. The foundation of the city was laid in about 1330. It reached its maximum extent and glory under Devaraya in 1445. After the battle of Talikotta in 1565, the Mussulmans carried on for six months a systematic destruction of the city which had been to them the cause of much humiliation.

The details of the history of that city are being brought to light every day. It was a "Forgotten Empire" fifteen years ago.

When it was in a flourishing condition, 1442-43, a Mussulman messenger from one of the sons of Tamerlane visited the place, and wrote a glowing description of what the city looked like. The main *pansupari* bazaar extended over 4½ miles of length. Drains paved with stones brought in pure water for drinking purposes from the Tungabadhra.

If you walk through the ruins of the city measuring 13½ and 12 miles diagonally, you will find no piece of art that has not suffered from the hands of the Vandals.

The learned Professor then exhibited with magic-lantern slides, the magnificent ruins of the City, and showed how the city was originally built in a position quite unfavourable to cavalry operations in which the Mussulmans excelled, how the city had natural defences, and how systematic Vandalism had affected almost every piece of art in it.

After the exhibition, Rev. F. Bertram thanked the lecturer for the lecture and for the exhibition of the slides of ruins in India that could compare with those of Thebes in Egypt and of other centres of civilisation of the Ancient World.

Father Leroyer.

On Tuesday evening the 8th February, Father Clement Leroyer left us to take his place at the front. Father Leroyer joined the staff as Asst. Lecturer in Physics towards the end of 1914. We wish him success and safety in his new career and a speedy return to Trichinopoly, to less exciting, but perhaps not less strenuous labours.

Games (1915-16).

As regards the Trichinopoly District Association Badminton Tournament, there is very little to be said. It attracted only five entries, out of which four were from our College. The only important match of the Tournament, the finals between the St. Joseph's College A. Team, the owners of the Shield, and the S. P. G. College Team, was witnessed with great interest. The competition was keen, and our neighbours put up a very hard fight; but the St. Joseph's Team ultimately prevailed, and won for the second time the shield and the medals.

The Fifth Annual St. J. C. Presidency Badminton Tournament, which lasted for nearly a week, was held on the Clive's Badminton grounds. With representations from Dindigul, Kumbakonam and Gobichettipalayam, there was, this year, a decided increase in the number of teams from outside Trichinopoly competing.

The Hesperus of Tanjore and the Muslims and Napiers of Madras did not fail to make their appearance.

The Dreadnought took the lead as usual, and the comic side of the programme was enjoyed for two days. After this the play took a more interesting turn. A series of interesting fixtures was gone through till the St. Joseph's College A. Team met the Napiers. Thenceforward, the grounds wore a lively and animated appearance, the seats were filled to overflowing, and the competitors contended for the coveted prizes in the midst of an encircling and ever increasing crowd of enthusiastic spectators.

Our College Five opposed the Napiers with a fixed determination to win this time. The Homesters had the better of the exchanges in the beginning. They found their score at twenty-five, while yet their adversaries were far behind them. But they had to yield gradually to the deliberate calmness of the visitors, who pulled hard, equalised, and finally won the first and the second game.

The Napiers then had an easy walk over the Lotus, and stood for the finals.

In the other round, the match in which great interest was centred, was the semi-finals between the Muslims and the Hesperus. It was a fast and exciting game from start to finish. Play stood at an even level for a very long time, both having taken one game and with no great difference between them in the early part of the third game. But the Muslims assumed in the end a vigourous offensive. Their pluck and endurance carried them successfully through, and left them to face the Napiers next.

The final match was very attractive; every detail of fine play exhibited met with loud applause. The Muslims entered the court with great expectations, but the slow and cautious game of their opponents put them off their guard. Frantic efforts were of no avail; the Napiers found themselves victors for the fourth time.

That part of the Tournament over, it only remained for the victors to be duly rewarded. The President of the day, M. R. Ry. Thiagaraja Iyer Avl., M. A., L. T., of the Pudukottah College, made a speech appropriate to the occasion, appreciating the beautiful game played by the two teams, and congratulating the winners on their deserved success. He then gave away the prizes, the shield and five gold medals, to the winners, and five silver medals to the runners-up, and announced the intention of the Committee to award three special medals to V. S. Srinivasan, K. Ramaswamy, and M. Rajaratnam of the St. Joseph's College team, in recognition of the part they played in the contest with the Napiers. With a vote of thanks to the President proposed by M. R. Ry. Arpudaswami Udayar Avl., B. A., L. T., the proceedings terminated.

The Tournament was conducted this year more magnificently than in previous years. The credit is entirely due to the zeal and vigorous efforts of the Committee and the efficient help rendered them by the College authorities.

11th Feb. 1916. K. N. RAGHAVACHARI, B.A.

The Fr. Sewell Memorial Cup Tournament.

The first tournament for the Father Sewell Memorial Cup presented to the College by Dr. T. S. Rajan, L. R. C. P., M. R. C. S., began in October 1914, but owing to a regrettable occurrence which it is needless to detail, was not completed till the 3rd February. Eight teams competed. The finals between St. Joseph's College and the Erode High School was a spirited game, an all-round splendid performance. St. Joseph's had hard work against the fine work of the Erode Team, but succeeded in winning by 2 goals to 1, and carried off the cup and the medals. The game played by the Erode team was too unusually splendid to be passed over, and the committee have decided to present them with a prize.

Old Boys.

We offer our hearty congratulations to Mr. M. R. Seturatnam Ayyar, Mirasdar of Manatattai (Kulitalai.)

The Government Administration Report, 3rd October 1914, mentions that "Mr. Setu Ratnam Ayyar, Chairman of the Kulitalai Union, has adopted vigorous measures to improve the sanitation of the Union, and achieved creditable success in his endeavours."

The Report, 30 September 1915, says: "The Government note with pleasure the testimony of the President [of the District Board] to the excellent work done by M. R. Ry. Setu Ratnam Ayyar Avl., Chairman of the Kulitalai Union, in preventing the spread of plague from Karur into Kulitalai."

Obituary.

Mr. P. N. Muthuswamy Naidu, B.A., F. R. S. A., of Pagadala Bagh, died on the 3rd February. He was one of the most distinguished alumni of the College. From the day he took his degree in 1888 he remained in constant touch with his *Alma Mater*, and year after year his name appeared on the list of Prize-donors.

The following is the tribute paid to his memory by the *Madras Mail* in its issue of the 10th February :—

"We regret to record the death of Mr. P.N. Muthuswamy Naidu, a partner of Messrs. M. A. Hyath Batcha Sahib and Co., which took place at Saidapet on Tuesday. The deceased was one of earliest graduates of the Madras University, and took to commerce as a career. In 1903 he travelled extensively in Europe, the United States, Japan and China. A leading Congressman, he was for nine years Treasurer of the Provincial Congress Committee. In 1911 he was awarded the Coronation Medal, and a few weeks before his death, he was elected a Fellow of the Royal Society of Arts. A public-spirited man, the deceased was an enthusiast in the cause of education, and founded the Lakshmi Hindu Balika Patasala, a free school for girls, at Saidapet."

* * *

K. P. Chacko, II U. C., Gp. I, died at Alleppey on the 14th January. Chacko was a very innocent, upright lad, and a favorite with his fellow-students and masters. He was backward in English till last term when he set to work with such success that great things were expected of him in the coming examination and in the B.A. Hons. Course. Our comfort is to think "He was taken away lest wickedness should alter his understanding, or deceit beguile his soul."

The Late Mr. H. O. D. Harding,

District Judge, Trichinopoly.

On Tuesday, 22nd Feb. by 12-45 P.M., the news of the murder of Mr. Harding reached the College. The first feeling was one of incredulity, for no one in the Trichy schools or colleges could fancy the existence of ill-will towards Mr. Harding. From the day of his arrival in Trichinopoly, Mr. Harding was popular with all classes in the town, no less with students than with the general public. He at all times showed himself interested in educational work, particularly, perhaps, in the work that students undertook on their own account. He attended, with evident pleasure and sympathy, school and college gatherings and functions, and he frequently took the Chair on these occasions. His clear, frank, even blunt addresses proved his large-hearted sympathy with all that concerns the well-being of Indians and the progress of India. No wonder, then, that the first rumour should have been met with incredulity. Messengers immediately confirmed the bad news and it spread like a wave of horrified surprise through all the classes of the College.

The details of the horrible assassination need not be repeated. The town of Trichinopoly gave evidence of its sympathy with the deceased in the procession of mourning throngs that followed the hearse to the grave. These demonstrations were, we trust, some comfort for the bereaved family of Mr. Harding, already in mourning for one of their members killed at the front,—a sad comfort, no doubt, but a comfort none the less. We trust that the chief mourners whom this horrible assassination has again plunged into still deeper sorrow, will accept this expression of the very sincere sympathy of the Staff and of the Students of St. Joseph's College.

Father Sewell Memorial Meeting.

A public meeting was held in the Lawley Hall, St. Joseph's College, Trichinopoly, on the 13th of February 1916, under the presidency of the Hon'ble Diwan Bahadur L. D. Swamikannu Pillai Avergal M. A., B. L., LL. B., Registrar of Co-operative Societies, Madras, to celebrate the First Anniversary of the death of Rev. Father Sewell.

The President, in opening the proceedings, said :—

Reverend Fathers and Gentlemen: The occasion that has brought us here to-day is, as you are aware, the return of the day when Rev. Father Sewell ceased to be with us. I do not think that you expect me or anybody else to make any speeches on this occasion. I did not intend to speak, but I was anxious to spend the day here by the side of the place where the ashes of Rev. Fr. Sewell now lie for ever. Since it has pleased you to ask me to preside at this meeting, I obey your request, and I call on the Secretary to make a short report of what has been done in connection with the memorials to be founded to perpetuate Father Sewell's memory.

Mr. Matrubutham Aiyar, the Secretary, then said :—

Mr. Chairman, Rev. Fathers and Gentlemen: I cannot better discharge the duty entrusted to me than by reading for you the Reports that have already appeared in the Annual and the Magazine.

At the outset, the work of the Committee did not progress rapidly, owing largely to the fact that, shortly after the Meeting, the Colleges and Public offices closed for the midsummer vacation. Of late, our efforts have been more successful. We have issued appeals to all the former pupils of the College and to other well-wishers and sympathizers, and we are glad to note that the appeals are receiving a liberal, if somewhat tardy, response.

We take this opportunity to thank Mr. K. P. Warmington of Madras, who has laboured unceasingly to promote this cause which is so dear to him; and to V. Krishnaswami, IV University Class, to whom the success in the Mofussil is very largely due.

Amount subscribed	Rs.	2760-11-7.
,, received	,,	2274-11-7.
,, to be realised	,,	486- 0-0.
,, spent (expenses)	,,	207-12-0.
,, on hand	,,	2066-15-7.

As the funds at present are not enough to erect a monument or do anything substantial to commemorate the memory of Father Sewell worthily, it has been thought that the form which the memorial should take should be decided only on the next anniversary day, when it is hoped that a decent sum may have been collected by the exertions of the Secretaries and the kind help of well-wishers and past students of the College. At least Rs. 2,000 more should be collected to carry out the schemes proposed.

Mr. S. Arputhaswamy Udayar was then called upon to speak. He said :—

Mr. Chairman, Rev. Fathers, and Gentlemen: This is the day on which we celebrate the anniversary of the Rev. Father Sewell's death, and it behoves us on this occasion to think of the great, good Rev. Father from whom we have all derived benefits either directly or indirectly, from himself personally, or from this College, which owes its present flourishing condition chiefly and largely to his untiring energy, to the influence which he wielded, and to his zeal for the advancement of Education.

We all listened, gentlemen, to the gracious tribute paid to his memory by His Excellency the Governor of Madras on the occasion of his visit to this College. That is a clear testimony, one among many other testimonies, which show that the late Rev. Father Sewell was held in very great esteem by the more

prominent gentlemen of Madras both officials and non-officials. Indeed, I have heard it said that the late Rev. Father Sewell was more known in Madras than in Trichinopoly. Gentlemen, we must not allow the memory of that great man to drop into oblivion. We have all loved him and we cherish his memory. We must show our veneration for him in some tangible, substantial manner.

Of the many schemes for perpetuating his work, in the College, as Municipal Councillor, as Fellow of the Madras University, as a member of the Syndicate, and as one who has done so much for the cause of education in Southern India, it would be well for us to give effect to one or other of the most feasible under the present circumstances. There was a proposal to erect a memorial in his lifetime itself. His modesty did not admit of the step at the time when there was no need of a memorial; his visible presence in our midst being a living memorial of his greatness and goodness. But now that he has departed from our midst and the superiors have allowed us a free hand in the matter, I for one see no impediment whatever in the way of perpetuating his memory. Secondly, it is a duty which we owe to the rising generation of students and to all future generations, that they should have a tangible memorial bringing to their minds chiefly the good work done by him, the noble work of a noble soul, as Manager of this College, the services rendered, services which were among the most useful and most lasting contributions to the intellectual and moral uplift by the spread of education in Southern India. Gentlemen, that the memorial will be an accomplished fact, when next year by the grace of God we celebrate the second anniversary of this great man, is the pious wish I beg leave to express on this, the first anniversary of his death.

The Rev. Father Bertram, Rector and Principal of St. Joseph's College, said that the College authorities were quite in sympathy with the endeavours of the well-wishers and the past students of the College. He desired that the memorial should, as far as possible, be useful. He appreciated the work of the Secretary, Mr. Matrubutham Aiyar, and prayed that he should succeed in his attempts.

The President, in bringing the proceedings to a close, said:—

Reverend Fathers and Gentlemen, both the speakers and the Secretary, Mr. Matrubutham Aiyar, have referred to the measures to be taken at an early date to carry out our intentions successfully. I for one think that our beginning is not at all discouraging. It is true we have not collected much money, but it is only a beginning, and in the next ten or twelve months as much and more will be collected. We must congratulate ourselves on what we have done. We have not failed so badly as we might have feared in making the collections, considering the present circumstances, which we may say are against us. Everybody not only pleads the excuse of the war, but pleads it rightly. Various calls upon us occasioned by the war have to be answered, and pockets have become somewhat narrow.

A very large number of people who are not former pupils of the College, but who are sympathisers with the movement, as Sir John Wallis, the Chief Justice of Madras, and others, have contributed to the memorial. Mr. K.P. Warmington of Madras has also taken a very active part in the work of the Committee, and many others also, and I do not doubt the movement will always be kept alive in the memory of the people. We shall be able to collect something in the course of the next two or three years, if not in one year, and then we can think of executing the more substantial portions of the memorial.

There was the question, which has been alluded to by Rev. Father Rector, of the form which the memorial should take. He has laid stress on his preference for that form of memorial which the Reverend Father Sewell himself would have preferred. But even if it should be ultimately in the nature of a monument, the interest on the sums

already collected might be, temporarily, and for the present, used to start a small scholarship to be held in St. Joseph's College. This would widen the knowledge of the existence of the Memorial Committee; it would enforce on minds the necessity of contributing, and would stimulate our enthusiasm to collect more money. Other things will no doubt be settled by the Committee, but this suggestion might be settled at once. I would ask those present here to remember that we have to work hard if this memorial is to be a success. It is hoped we shall also have, as all the great University Colleges in Europe have, memorials of all great men that have passed away and have been connected with this College. Father Sewell is the first of our great men during the existence of St. Joseph's College at Trichinopoly. We need a memorial to him for the generations of students to come after, say, 15, 20, or 30 years, and also for the discharge of the duty we owe to the present generation of students.

I do not think, gentlemen, that I need detain you with any futher remark. I am sure we all feel the loss caused by the removal of Father Sewell. Rev. Father Sewell does not after all need a memorial for himself, one who is in heaven—in a happy eternity—as we know and feel sure that he is, does not need a memorial on earth. It is true, and we feel at the same time in our hearts, that he is not taken away from us. He is with us and will be with us for ever. I remember when I took my last leave of his mortal remains, the one idea in my mind was that he was happy, supremely happy, and that it would be the proper thing to pray to him instead of praying for him.

I thank you once more for asking me to preside, and I will only express the hope that the anniversary of the Rev. Fr. Sewell will always be kept up in the College.

Mr. F. G. Natesan, in thanking The Hon'ble L. D. Swamikannu for having consented to preside on the occasion, said that even the Rs. 4,000 spoken of by Mr. Mathrubutham was not enough for the memorial all desired for Father Sewell, and that the Secretaries and others should work hard to raise at least Rs. 10,000. He also remarked that the effects of war need not be much feared, for they were not felt to an appreciable extent here in India.

Father Sewell Memorial Fund.

3rd List of Subscribers.

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(By Order of the Secretaries.)

V KRISHNASAMI,

Member, Executive Committee.

1st Dec. 1915.

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The Loyola University Magazine, Chicago.

St. Michael's College Annual, Batticaloa.

Our Little Paper, St. Joseph's High School, Trivandrum.

The Presentation Annual, Georgetown, Madras.

S. P. G. High School Magazine, Oct. 1915, Trichinopoly.

Blue and White, St. Joseph's College Magazine, Colombo.

The North Point Annual, Darjeeling.

St. Mary's European High School Magazine, Madras.

The Literary Journal, Young Men's Literary Association, Triplicane, Madras.

The Madras Fortnightly, Tambu Chetty St., Madras.

St. Joseph's College Annual, Bangalore.

The Aloysian, St. Aloysius College, Galle.

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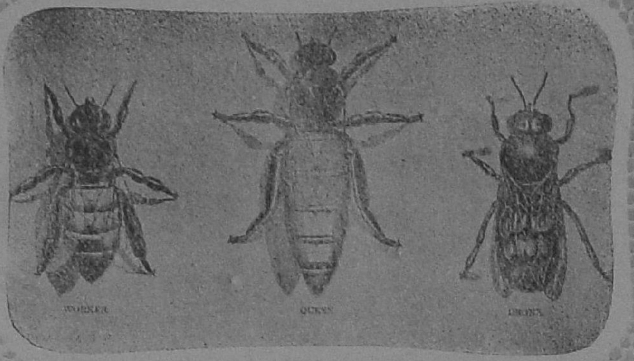

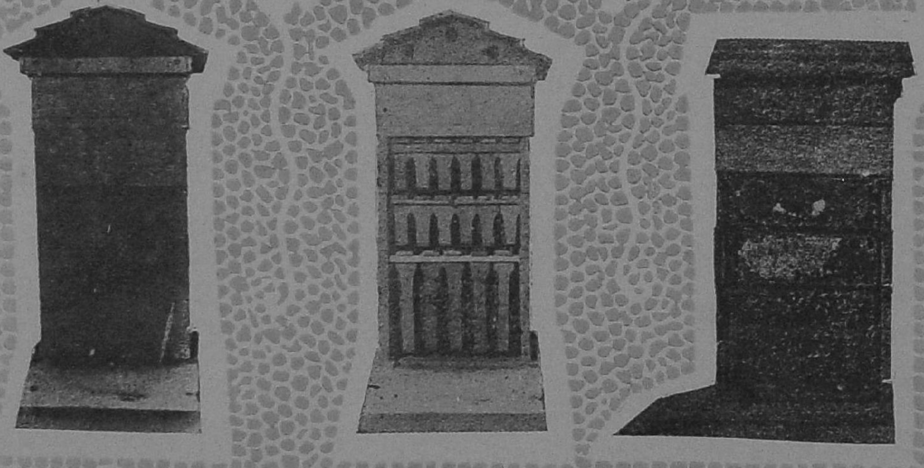

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